THE BULLETIN

of the

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION

of

NURSE ANESTHETISTS

AUGUST 1940

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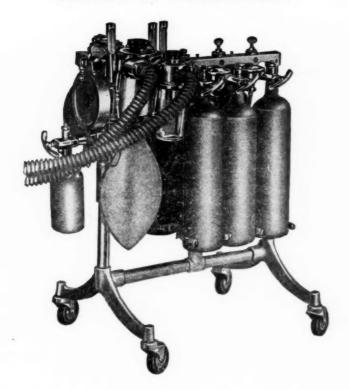
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BULLETIN OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF NURSE ANESTHETISTS

The Bulletin of the American Association of Nurse Anesthetists is published by the American Association of Nurse Anesthetists; Executive, Editorial and Business Offices, 2065 Adelbert Road, Cleveland, Ohio.

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Manuscripts submitted for publication may be sent to Gertrude L. Fife, University Hospitals, Cleveland, Ohio.

The American Association of Nurse Anesthetists does not hold itself responsible for any statements or opinions expressed by any contributor in any article published in its columns.

Manuscripts. — Manuscripts should be typewritten on one side of the paper only, with double spacing and liberal margins. References should be placed at the end of the article and should conform to the following style: viz., name of author, title of article, and name of periodical with volume, page, and year.

Illustrations accompanying manuscripts should be numbered, provided with suitable legends, and marked on margin or back with the author's name, Authors should indicate on the manuscript the approximate position of text figures.

Illustrations — A reasonable number of half-tones will be reproduced free of cost to the author, but special arrangements must be made with the Chairman of the Publishing Committee for elaborate tables or extra illustrations.

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The Bulletin of the American Association of Nurse Anesthetists

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AUGUST, 1940

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BOSTON — 1940 CONVENTION CITY

Historic Boston, over three hundred years old—the birthplace of American liberty, is the capital of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, a city of over two and a quarter million. It boasts of two hundred universities, colleges and schools, of which the major ones are Boston University, Harvard, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Radcliffe, Wellesley, Tufts, Simmons, Boston College, New England Conservatory of Music, Northeastern, and Massachusetts School of Art.

To enumerate but a few interesting spots that have a universal appeal: From the tower of the Custom House a wonderful panorama of the city may be seen; the Boston Navy Yard has been in continuous operation since 1800 and covers 123½ acres; five museums are open to the public, including Natural History, Fine Arts and the Isabella Stewart Gardner Museum—a marble palace. Many tours of scenic and historical interest may be taken through Boston and around the North and South shores; for example, Marblehead, a typical old New England town with narrow streets and interesting old houses and doorways, and the picturesque rustic cottages of the fishermen which attract tourists from all over the world; Cape Ann, a promontory which extends out into the Atlantic Ocean, with beautiful rocks, beaches and rolling sea; and Plymouth Rock.

Post-convention tours which include Plymouth, the Pilgrim Shore, Cape Cod, and the islands off the South Shore, have been arranged by the American Hospital Association for those who wish to see more of the romantic beauty of this storied section.



Hotel Touraine

HOTEL HEADQUARTERS

Hotel Touraine, located opposite Boston Common at Tremont Street, is near transportation facilities, the shopping district and leading theaters. All rooms large, with outside exposure. Rates: Single rooms, \$3.50 to \$5.50; double rooms, \$5.00 to \$7.00, or with twin beds \$5.50 to \$7.50; extra guest in room, with day-bed, \$1.50 daily.

MAKE RESERVATIONS EARLY.

EIGHTH ANNUAL MEETING

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF NURSE ANESTHETISTS September 16 to 19, 1940, inclusive

BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS

Held in conjunction with the American Hospital Association

HEADQUARTERS: HOTEL TOURAINE

All general sessions will be held in the Convention Hall

Registration:

Convention Hall—Monday, September 16 to Thursday, September 19 inclusive

9:00 A.M. to 12:00 P.M.

2:00 P.M. to 4:00 P.M.

Registration fee - \$1.00

Members and guests are also asked to register with the American Hospital Association

Badge is entrance requirement for all convention sessions

Tickets for banquet, luncheon and breakfast should be secured at the Registration Desk as early as possible

Commercial and scientific exhibits open daily from 9:00 A.M. to 5:00 P.M.

TENTATIVE PROGRAM

Sunday, September 15

MEETING OF THE BOARD OF TRUSTEES

Hotel Tournine

Monday, September 16

REGISTRATION — CONVENTION HALL

9:00 A.M.-12:00 P.M.

GENERAL SESSION

2:00-4:30 P.M.

Miriam Shupp, President, Presiding

Invocation

Reverend Carl Heath Koph, Boston; Mt. Vernon Congregational Church Address of Welcome

The Honorable Maurice J. Tobin, Mayor of Boston

Greetings from the American Hospital Association

Fred G. Carter, M.D., Cleveland, President

Superintendent, St. Luke's Hospital

"Building Esprit de Corps"

James A. Hamilton, New Haven; Superintendent, New Haven Hospital; President, American College of Hospital Administrators

"Anesthesia in the Army Hospitals"

Beatrice M. Quin, Washington, D.C., Army Medical Center, Walter Reed General Hospital

Tuesday, September 17

BUSINESS SESSION

Convention Hall

9:30 A.M.-12:00 P.M.

Miriam G. Shupp, President, Presiding

Roll Call

Reading of Minutes

Reports of: President - - - - Miriam G. Shupp Executive Secretary - - Anna Willenborg Treasurer - - - Gertrude L. Fife

Standing Committees:

Curriculum - - - Rosalie C. McDonald

Education and Educational

Correlating - - - Helen Lamb
Membership - - - Theresa Hammond
Nominating - - - Gertrude L. Fife
Revisions - - - Ruth Botsford
Trust Fund - - - Verna M. Rice

Special Committees:

Questionnaire - - -

Seal - - - Louise Schwarting

12 Noon-Luncheon

(See Special Events)

GENERAL SESSION

Convention Hall

2:00-4:30 P.M.

Helen Young Walker, Philadelphia, Presiding

"Vital Capacity in Relation to Postoperative Pulmonary Complications"

Elliott Carr Cutler, M.D., Boston; Moseley Professor of Surgery, Harvard Medical School; Surgeon-in-Chief, Peter Bent Brigham Hospital

"Prevention of Cerebral Complications following Surgical Operation"
Albert Behrend, M.D., Philadelphia; Attending Surgeon, Rush Hospital for Consumptives; Assistant Surgeon, Jewish, Mt. Sinai, Philadelphia General Hospitals

"Carbon Dioxide Hyperventilation Postoperatively"

Donald S. King, M.D., Boston; Associate in Medicine, Harvard Medical School; Associate Physician, Massachusetts General Hospital

"Ether in Thoracic Surgery"

Elizabeth Nisbet Wates, R.N., Sanatorium, Miss.; Chief Anesthetist. Mississippi State Sanatorium

7:00 P.M.

Banquet — Hotel Touraine
Music
Invocation — Reverend Howard M. Lowell
Introduction of Guests
Guest Speaker

Wednesday, September 18

8:00 A.M. Clinics:

Peter Bent Brigham Hospital Children's Hospital Massachusetts General Hospital

11:00

Tour through Harvard Medical School

GENERAL SESSION

2:00-4:30 P.M.

Convention Hall

Myra Van Arnsdale, Cleveland; St. Luke's Hospital, Presiding

"Anesthesia in Plastic Surgery"

Regina M. Noon, R. N., St. Louis; Anesthetist to V. P. Blair, M.D., Barnes Hospital

"The Diabetic Patient as a Subject for Anesthesia"

Howard F. Root, M.D., Boston; Instructor in Medicine, Harvard Medical School; Physician, New England Deaconess Hospital

"Hazards in the Use of Explosive Anesthetics"

J. Warren Horton, Cambridge, Mass.; Associate Professor of Biological Engineering, Massachusetts Institute of Technology

"Problems of Anesthesia Service in Small Hospitals"

Carin H. Pedersen, R.N., Portsmouth, New Hampshire; Assistant Superintendent and Anesthetist, Portsmouth General Hospital

4:30-6:00 P.M.

MEETING OF ADVISORY COUNCIL

Convention Hall
Miriam Shupp, President, Presiding

Thursday, September 19 8:00 A.M.

Hotel Touraine

INSTRUCTORS' SESSION

(Breakfast Conference)

Helen Lamb, Chairman Educational Committee, presiding

SIGHT-SEEING TRIP

Leaving Hotel Touraine at 10:30 A.M.

GENERAL SESSION

Convention Hall

2:00-4:30 P.M.

Miriam Shupp, President, Presiding

Round Table

Conducted by Esther C. Myers, New Orleans Charity Hospital

Unfinished Business

Report of Tellers

Introduction of New Officers

NOTICE

The annual business meeting of the University Hospitals (Lakeside) School of Anesthesia Alumnae Association will be held in Boston during the convention of the American Association of Nurse Anesthetists. The time and place will be given in the "Special Events Division" of the program of the American Association of Nurse Anesthetists included in the official program of the American Hospital Association.

OFFICIAL NOTICE

July, 1940

The members of the American Association of Nurse Anesthetists are hereby notified that revisions and amendments to the By-Laws will be presented for consideration at the business session of the annual meeting, which will be held in Boston, Mass., September 16-19, 1940.

(signed) RUTH BOTSFORD

Chairman Revisions Committee

CORA MCKAY

S. LOUISE FITZGERALD

PENTOTHAL SODIUM-OXYGEN ANESTHESIA IN GENERAL SURGERY: A METHOD OF ADMINISTRATION

T. C. DAVISON, M.D.,

Associate Professor Clinical Surgery, and

FRED. F. RUDDER, M.D.,

Assistant in Surgery, Emory University Medical School, Atlanta, Ga.

Ever since Crawford W. Long of Georgia first used ether as a general anesthetic in 1842, the medical profession has been trying to find an ideal anesthetic; and for the past forty years there have been constant efforts to improve those agents and methods already in use. Ten years ago J. T. Gwathmey, of New York City, stated that he believed any further improvements would come from a combination of the anesthetics now in use.

The latest approach to this problem has been the use of anesthetics by the intravenous route. Evipal has stood the test of time and has accomplished two things:

- Established the safety of intravenous anesthetics.
- Showed the possibilities for further development of anesthetic agents and paved the way by popularizing the intravenous route for producing anesthesia.

In 1934 the Abbott Laboratories introduced a new barbituric acid compound called sodium pentothal. Chemically this drug is sodium ethyl (1 methyl, butyl) thio-barbiturate. Its toxicity is about the same as evipal but it is 30 to 50 per cent more potent.

The most outstanding features of this compound are: It is an ultra-short acting barbiturate with an excessive, Read at the Southeastern Assembly of Nurse Anesthetists, held at Edgewater Park, Miss., March 28-29, 1940.

fast, destructive rate. It is broken down rapidly by the liver and no trace remains in the body after three hours. It has little or no effect on the blood chemistry constituents, or on hepatic or renal function. The elevation of blood sugar is negligible. There is no sweating and no loss of fluids. The temperature of the extremities is usually one to two degrees higher than that of the body.¹

Electrocardiograms taken before, during and after operation on normal individuals and on patients suffering with cardiac damage showed no abnormal complexes. Like all barbiturates it is a marked respiratory depressant: the rate is not appreciably influenced but the amplitude is decreased as the depth of anesthesia is increased.

Since the introduction of sodium pentothal one hundred and seventy articles regarding its use have been published in this country and abroad.³ Thirty-five thousand case reports have been recorded following its use, and approximately 100,000 patients have been given this new anesthetic. Lundy of the Mayo Clinic, Rochester, Minn., reported 12,000 cases²; Carraway of Birmingham, Alabama, 3,000,4 and

Thomas of Pittsburg, Penna., 5,500, with no deaths.⁵

We are reporting 1,139 consecutive cases in which this anesthetic was administered during the past fifteen months. Both private and service cases are included.

SEX:—female, 683; male, 456. Total, 1,139.

AGE INCIDENCE:—Youngest, sixteen months; oldest, eighty-one years.

The majority of the patients were in the second, third and fourth decades of life. Fifteen per cent were over the age of fifty. Our experience with children under the age of ten has been limited. We know that it takes a relatively larger dose of the drug for children than for adults. This anesthetic is a godsend to elderly patients; they need only a small amount of the drug and the normal metabolic functions are not disturbed appreciably.

SURGICAL RISKS. Good, 957. Fair, 121. Poor, 61.

Sodium pentothal has been put to a considerable test, more than 15 per cent of the cases being either fair or poor risks. A number of our patients were given sodium pentothal purposely because it was felt that their chances for recovery would be better with this anesthetic.

MAJOR SURGICAL PROCEDURES-

928 cases, or more than 80 per cent. This proportion is higher than in a previously reported series. We feel that with experienced anesthetists and the administration of oxygen, major surgical procedures can be accomplished safely with this anesthetic agent.

The following table shows the total number of cases from the Atlanta hospitals.

TABLE I

Type of operation	Number of cases
General surgery	574
Gynecological	212
Ear, eye, nose and t	hroat 88
Orthopedic	50
Urological	133
Neurological	32
Dental	10
Plastic	33
Others	7

Approximately 800 of these anesthesias were given by the staff anesthetists at the Georgia Baptist Hospital, Atlanta. General surgery and gynecology account for the majority of the cases.

PARTIAL LIST OF OPERATIONS:

TITLE MINT OF OTHER	assaustio.
Appendectomy	334
Stomach operations	30
Gallbladder	37
Perforated peptic ulcer	5
Breast operations	20
Rectal operations	26
Thyroidectomy	40
Herniorrhaphy	2
Blood vessel surgery	7
Hysterectomy	104
Vaginal plastic and pelvic	
operations	63
Cesarean	6
Ectopic pregnancy	1
Laminectomy	5
Brain tumor	3

DURATION OF ANESTHESIA. The shortest time was three minutes and the longest time four hours and fifteen minutes; and the average time was forty minutes. As a rule prolonged operative procedures were well tolerated. However, with such remarkable relaxation of the patient and in the absence of shock, the slow operator made no special effort to get the patient off the table. The prolonged anesthesia has an accumulative effect on the patient; also, delayed shock may develop due to prolonged trauma to the tissues and loss of blood. Therefore we do not de-

lay completion of the operation any longer than is absolutely necessary.

DOSAGE - The smallest dose was .1 gram to 16 months old baby; the largest dose was 4.7 grams; and the average was 1.3 grams. As with any other anesthetic the dose depends on the individual. Children require more than adults according to their body weight. Young, vigorous adults and alcoholics may require 1.0 gram before going to sleep. Aged patients require very small doses. Preanesthetic medication plays a definite rôle in the amount of the drug necessary for sat-If the patient is isfactory results. drowsy when he comes to the operating table the dosage required is much less. We use routinely sodium amytal, nembutal or cyclopal sodium, at 9:00 P.M. of the evening preceding the operation, and again two hours before the operation. One hour before operation 1/3 grain of pantopon with 1/150 grain of atropine is given. We use pantopon instead of morphine because there is less postoperative nausea and vomiting. Atropine is one of the "musts" when using pentothal, because it diminishes the chance of laryngeal spasm, hiccoughs, sneezing and coughing.

The dosage of sodium pentothal is tabulated in four types of operations, as follows:

TABLE II DOSAGE IN GRAMS

Type of operation	No. of cases	Smallest	Largest	Average
Appendectomy	140	0.6	4.0	1.5
Hysterectomy	50	1.0	3.4	1.8
Thyroidectomy	36	0.5	1.2	1.0
Herniorrhaphy	26	0.8	1.2	1.0

RESULTS OF ANESTHESIA

From the patient's standpoint the anesthetic was 100 per cent satisfactory; seven cases, or less than 1 per cent, were reported unsatisfactory from the anesthetist's and surgeon's standpoint. One failure was due to the fact that the patient was never anesthetized.

A long-beveled needle was used and part of the solution was given in the vein and part around the vein. Although 20 cc. of a 5 per cent solution was given, no sloughing or discomfort occurred.

In three patients upon whom bronchoscopic examination was attempted, the anesthesia proved unsatisfactory due to lack of relaxation and coughing. The laryngeal reflex is the last to be abolished.

One patient had a submaxillary duct obstruction. Breathing became difficult when the tongue was pulled on.

One patient with a gunshot wound of the abdomen suffered from shock, and the anesthesia was supplemented with ether.

One patient vomited at the beginning of a gallbladder operation; a spinal anesthetic was then administered.

METHOD OF ADMINISTRATION

The safety and controllability of this powerful drug is due to two factors:

- 1. Short action.
- 2. Rapid destruction in the body.

In order that one anesthetist, unassisted, might give the drug and have both hands free, one of us (F.F.R.) devised a syringe holder with a rack and pinion gear. This apparatus allows the drug to be given slowly, evenly and drop by drop intermittently as needed, by simply turning the gear wheel with the thumb and index finger. (See Figures I and II.)

The advantages of the apparatus are:

 A 50 cc. syringe capacity allows the completion of the majority of cases without refilling the syringe. 2. It allows one anesthetist without assistance to give an anesthesia of usual duration without fear of dislodging the needle from the vein. Both hands are free.

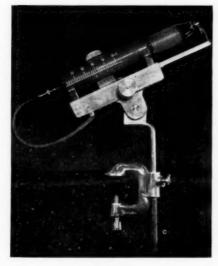


Fig. I

Note adjustability to any position. "Catch" holds the glass adapter on end of rubber tubing to prevent its contamination.

- 3. No back flow into the needle is possible, thereby preventing occlusion of the needle by clotting.
- 4. It is adjustable in any position.

The technique as worked out at the Georgia Baptist Hospital is as follows:

1. 2½ per cent solution made by adding 1.0 gram of the drug to 40 cc. of distilled water. This solution is drawn into a 50 cc. syringe with a large 13 gauge needle 2½ inches long. A small rubber connecting tube 6 inches long is attached to the syringe; a glass adapter is attached to the other end of the tubing.

- Arm board is fixed to table and the patient's arm adjusted.
- Syringe holder is clamped to arm board and raised to desired level.
- 4. Syringe is snapped into syringe holder and glass adapter on rubber tubing inserted into "catch" underneath syringe holder, to prevent contamination of adapter.
- 5. A vein at the elbow is entered with a short-beveled 20 gauge needle 1 inch long.
- Glass adapter connected to needle, and needle and adapter firmly fixed to arm with two strips of adhesive.

The patient is then asked to count aloud and the solution is given very slowly. The counting usually ceases in from 30 to 45 seconds, after 8 to 10 cc. of solution have been given. After



Fig. II

Anesthetist holding up patient's chin with one hand and administering sodium pentothal from syringe by simply turning the gear wheel on the syringe holder.

waiting for ¾ to 1 minute 2 to 3 cc. are given slowly. The oxygen mask is adjusted and oxygen is administered usually at the rate of 3 liters per minute, or as the patient's condition war-

rants. The patient is pinched with a toothed forcep and if there is no movement the operation may start. Indications for more of the drug are any movement, phonation, or stiffening of the jaw muscle. A nasal catheter may be used for operations on the face and oral passages. The best single guide for the depth of anesthesia is the respiration. The degree of relaxation of the jaw is also a good guide for depth of anesthesia. The eye signs are of little value. There is little or no change in the pulse rate and blood pressure.

We advocate 5 per cent glucose intravenously in all prolonged surgical procedures. This is given readily by attaching an ordinary two-way stop-cock at the needle. In case more than 1.0 gram of pentothal is given, the syringe may be readily refilled by temporarily discontinuing the glucose and drawing the solution from the container through the stopcock.

If shock is impending, either 2 cc. of metrazol, intravenously; 1 cc. of coramine; or 2 cc. of picrotoxin of a .3 per cent solution are used. Carbon dioxide may be used as necessary.

COMPLICATIONS

- 1. Phlebitis. Two patients who had each received 5 per cent solution had marked sclerosis of the veins extending from the elbow to the deltoid region. The condition cleared up within three to four weeks with no permanent ill effects. Since then we have used $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent solution and have not had other cases of phlebitis.
- 2. Drug idiosyncrasies. Two patients developed a generalized skin rash resembling scarlet fever six hours after the anesthetic was given, with temperatures of 101° to 103°, the condition clearing up within forty-eight hours, with no further ill effects.

3. Atelectasis. The patient was not sufficiently anesthetized, and when traction was made on the peritoneum she suddenly gasped, aspirating a plug of mucus. This was removed with the bronchoscope, and the patient recovered.

Deaths There were no deaths in this series attributable to the anesthetic. One patient, a colored boy in a moribund condition, suffering from extreme subcutaneous emphysema from a stab wound of chest, died at the very beginning of an anesthesia after having received less than 0.3 gram of the drug. The operating surgeon stated that he considered the death due to a sudden mediastinal shift and not to the anesthetic.

CONTRAINDICATIONS

We feel that, as a rule, a patient who can take any other anesthetic can take pentothal. Jaundiced patients and patients with liver damage have shown no ill effects from its use. We make an exception in patients with extensive chest operations, however, as we think gas-oxygen anesthesia under pressure is more advantageous. In patients in whom there is a possibility of any postnasal discharge, fluid or blood, passing into the larynx, trachea, or bronchi, either a throat pack around the airway or an intratracheal catheter with balloon should be used to prevent the discharge from entering this area; for the cough reflex is practically abolished in patients anesthetized with this drug. Likewise patients with bronchiectasis or pulmonary tuberculosis with cavitation should not be given this anesthet-

SUMMARY

- Eleven hundred and thirty-nine cases of pentothal sodium-oxygen anesthesia given over a period of fifteen months are reported.
 - 2. Over 80 per cent of these cases

were major surgical procedures; 15 per cent were fair or poor risks, and 15 per cent were past the age of 50.

- 3. Pentothal sodium should be given only by an anesthetist who has been trained in its use, and oxygen should be given to combat the anoxemia that results from the depression of respira-
- 4. Atropine should be given, preferably one hour before operation.
- No deaths occurred in this series attributable to the anesthetic.
- 6. The results were satisfactory in 100 per cent of the cases from the patient's standpoint, and more than 99 per cent saitsfactory from the anesthetist's and surgeon's standpoint.
- 7. A method by which one anesthetist unassisted can give the drug, and also administer oxygen, is described.

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Personal communication with author.

478 Peachtree St., N. E. Atlanta, Ga.

THE PHYSIOLOGY OF RESPIRATION

HANS O. HATERIUS, A.B., M.D., Ph.D.,

Associate Professor of Physiology, Wayne University College of Medicine, Detroit, Michigan

Recent progress in our knowledge of underlying factors concerned in the mechanism of respiration serves to emphasize certain points of eminent practical importance, of which the following is a brief summary.

RESPIRATORY CENTER

This center, it seems probable, consists of a functional aggregation of motor nerve cells situated in the formatio reticularis of the medulla but lacking organization as discrete nuclei. The very lack of a closely knit segregation

Read at the joint meeting of the anesthetists of Illinois, Indiana and Michigan, with the Tri-State Hospital Assembly, held in Chicago, Ill., May 1 and 2, 1940.

allows for a catholicity of interest, so to speak, and the "center," rather than serving as a definite tract for mediation of circumscribed impulses, forms instead a clearing house and final common path for a variety of impulses of varied destination but with integrated function. Through its juxtaposition to

cardiovascular and vasomotor centers a high degree of coordinated responses is made possible.

The cells of the center respond to two types of stimuli: (1) reflex, and (2) chemical, either acting directly (e.g., carbon dioxide) or via reflex routes (e.g., oxygen lack). As for direct stimulation, it seems generally agreed that increase in intracellular acidity leads to increased activity; decreased acidity, on the contrary, appears to depress. Since carbon dioxide has the property of extremely rapid diffusion, it possesses the virtue of being an especially potent stimulant to increased activity of the respiratory motor neurons. It is to be recalled, however, that biologically carbon dioxide acts as a cellular depressant, or a narcotic, on living cells in general. It follows, then, that the respiratory motor cells must possess under normal conditions a unique and highly specialized property; that is to say, they differ biologically from other cells in their capacity of response to the influence of carbon dioxide. The term normal is to be emphasized, however, for when damaged, as by anoxia, trauma, narcosis, or toxic agents, these cells promptly revert to type, as it were, and carbon dioxide then acts in its conventional manner, as a depressant. This biological generalization is of paramount importance in any consideration of carbon dioxide in relation to respiration, and it can easily be seen why carbon dioxide therapy may be contraindicated under certain conditions of respiratory depression. Reference will be made later to the specific depression induced by preoperative medication.

Oxygen lack does not stimulate the normal respiratory center, however, but acts rather as a depressant, as it does to nerve cells in general. We know, however, that anoxemia can serve to stimulate breathing. How,

then, does it act? Its action must obviously be indirect and, as it pertains here, is mediated reflexly; not only that, but by a pattern of such strength as to overcome ordinarily the central depression exercised by oxygen lack directly. Associated with this reflex mechanism are specialized receptors in the carotids and in the aorta. Before considering them, however, certain other reflex mechanisms merit attention.

REFLEX MECHANISMS IN RESPIRATION

(1) Afferent impulses in general. These, if sufficiently powerful, may affect respiration markedly. This is notably true of painful afferent stimuli, the practical significance of which is realized in conditions of extreme pain where the sudden application of anesthesia may produce respiratory failure and sometimes death. Conditions of traumatic shock, for example, when associated with loss of blood and concomitant fall in blood pressure, may induce anoxemic depression of respiration. Here the center may be depressed to the point where the painful afferent impulses alone are serving to maintain respiratory activity. Sudden elimination of the painful stimuli, by divorcing the center from its sole remaining driving force, obviously is likely to lead to respiratory failure, sudden and complete, unless adequate measures have been instituted to restore the failing circulation.

(2) Trigeminal-vagal reflexes. Similarly, sudden application of irritant vapors (e. g., ether) often may block respiration and cause embarrassing cardiac slowing, even in the individual with normal centers, through operation of a reflex pattern comprised of trigeminal and vagal pathways. Sensory endings of the trigeminus innervating the mucosa in the regions about the pharyngeal entrance convey impulses

set up by the noxious stimulus; these, in the medulla, are promptly translated and relayed over spinal and vagal pathways to involve respectively, respiratory depression and cardiac inhibition. This is a deep seated and primitive protective mechanism which often may be difficult to overcome.

(3) Lung reflexes (Hering-Breuer reflexes). These arise from vagal afferent receptors in the alveolar ducts and consist of two types, both of which affect the inspiratory phase of breathing. One set, responding to lung distention, inhibits further inspiration. The other, responding to lung deflation, serves to excite inspiration, and between them a nice balance between inspiration and expiration is maintained; they serve, in short, as "check valves" to respiratory amplitude and, under certain conditions, to rate as well. In the use of inhalation anesthetics, more especially those of an irritant nature, the importance of these reflexes becomes apparent. Even when the cough reflex has been blocked, one of its fundamental components, that of forced expiratory contractions, still tends to persist and to dominate the pattern of respiration under ether-a pattern which resolves itself into a somewhat exaggerated type of breathing as the lungs empty rapidly and completely, with increased rate and depth of respiration. This type of respiration serves as a useful guide; the important point being the fact of its maintenance by reflex influences. A sudden depression of respiration at this stage constitutes a well-known danger sign which, interpreted physiologically, means a depth of anesthesia sufficient to paralyze the expiratory components of the respiratory center. This in turn means that, if it be unchecked, paralysis of the inspiratory components will follow very quickly.

In the use of non-irritant vapors

(e.g., cyclopropane) and of non-volatile agents (e.g., barbiturates) these reflexes are of little value, since this expiratory exaggeration is greatly reduced or is absent altogether. In fact the degree of respiratory depression may be out of all proportion to the depth of anesthesia obtained. This depression, with its resultant anoxia, deserves critical consideration with particular reference to the practice of preoperative medication (McClure et al.) and will be considered briefly later.

(4) Carotid and aortic reflexes. Certain changes in the chemical composition of the blood until a few years ago believed to act directly upon the respiratory center, are now known to exert their effects reflexly, particularly with respect to the bodily defense mechanisms against anoxemia. The chemoceptors involved lie in the carotid body and in the walls of the aorta, and possess the capacity of being able to translate chemical stimuli into afferent nerve impulses to the respiratory center. Oxygen lack, particularly, appears to be a potent stimulus to these receptors, and the increased rate of breathing occasioned by oxygen lack is generally attributed to mediation by nervous pathways-largely glossopharyngeal afferent fibers, although other nerve fibers undoubtedly participate. Now, these reflex mechanisms are more resistant to narcotics, toxic substances, and excessive carbon dioxide than are other tissues (including the respiratory center). Consequently, they may continue to operate effectivelyunder the drive of a continued anoxemia-even after the center itself has lost the capacity to respond to the direct effects of carbon dioxide. This being so, sudden alleviation of the anoxemia may often result in cessation of breathing, a failure which oxygen therapy seems incapable, by itself, of alleviating.

Tissue asphyxia is, of course, the bête noire of the anesthetist, as well as of the experimentalist, and the degrees and types of anoxia which serve as precursors have been listed and classified according to their cause and consequences. Lack of oxygen will naturally be correlated more or less directly with the degree of respiratory depression and, because of this, factors tending to induce the latter become matters of lively interest. It has been pointed out that non-volatile anesthetics in general tend to cause such depression, and, since the depression is greatly exaggerated in proportion to the degree of narcosis attained, the administration of actual anesthesia doses may produce serious damage. Such depression, with resultant anoxia, merits especial attention in view of the widespread use of preoperative sedation.

Such medication, especially with the barbiturates, can scarcely be defended on rational grounds from the strictly physiological point of view. With the almost invariable depression of respiratory function, one encounters an initial depression of oxygen tension at the onset of complete anesthesia which may often prove extremely deleterious. Moreover, barbiturates, localized in their action rather more in the diencephalon than in the cerebral hemispheres, produce, in addition to respiratory depression, a fall in body temperature and an early circulatory depression-an unphysiological triad, to say Even in moderate dosage the least. and especially when given intravenously, degrees of anoxia develop ranging from slight to severe in degree, particularly anoxia of the histotoxic type, which proves least amenable to treatment. McClure and his associates offer examples of such anoxia based upon brain metabolism studies, which reveal

that tissue slices may display a reduction in oxygen consumption of 16 to 28 per cent, and brain tissue in vivo a reduction of 28 per cent, with a fall in carbon dioxide production of 80 per cent — all as a sequel to previous barbiturate administration. Similarly, (tribromethanol) avertin in hands depressed respiration and circulation, producing anoxia and stagnant anoxia, a condition amenable only to early control of the fall in blood pressure. Spinal anesthesia proved more promising, provided that the initial circulatory depression and vasodilatation were held in check, and provided that preoperative medication was avoided. With inhalation mixtures containing a reasonable level of oxygen (e. g., ethylene, cyclopropane) anoxia occurred only if preoperative medication was employed. Inhalation anesthetics whose efficacy is predicated upon reduction of oxygen below maintenance levels (6 per cent)-as, for example, nitrous oxide, are of necessity limited in their applicability, since the duration of their action must be definitely limited.

Finally, from what has been said with respect to responses of the normal and the depresed respiratory center to carbon dioxide, one has a rational basis of explanation for the divergence of opinion regarding the efficacy of this gas as a theurapeutic agent in overcoming respiratory failure or in correcting a weakened cen-For example, two schools of thought have evolved, diametrically opposed as to viewpoint, concerning neonatal asphyxia and resuscitation. This evolution probably has as its basis the fact that, with the use of barbiturate sedation, which practically abolishes normal respiratory responses to carbon dioxide, use of the latter would scarcely be expected to be effective (Henderson, 1940). The school which champions its use, on the other

hand, proves to be the one which avoids the use of barbiturates either as a sedative or as an anesthetic.

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ANESTHESIA IN MAJOR UROLOGICAL SUR-GERY; POSTANESTHETIC COMPLICA-TIONS; 500 CASES

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and

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We are presenting our results with five hundred consecutive major urological cases under the care of one surgeon, one operating team and one anesthetist.

Read at the ninth annual meeting of the Pennsylvania Association of Nurse Anesthetists, held in Pittsburgh, Pa., May 8-10, 1940.

Dr. E. J. McCague, our urologist and surgeon, has had a wide experience, has the confidence of his patients, and employs consultants to prepare his patients and aid him in their after care. He often sends a patient home to get stronger or to gain weight or to wait until an infection subsides. In a few instances, where the mental attitude of the patient has been bad or some physical finding doubtful, the patient has been returned to his room from the operating room table. He has always cooperated with the anesthetist. We often see the patient together, beforehand, and the results are frequently discussed. In his early operations, years ago, ether was used exclusively, but he now sees a place for each anesthetic agent and the results, I believe, will bear this out. One seldom has a group of such fixed factors—one

surgeon, a well-run and highly organized urological department, one operating room team, one anesthetist.

The five hundred anesthetics were given during 1938, 1939, and a few in 1940. The cases may be divided as follows:

Kidney operations	126
Bladder operations	130
Prostatectomy	178
Penis and scrotal operations	40
Operations on ureters	24
Adrenal tumor operations	2

Total 500

The above were so-called major cases, although hundreds of anesthesias were given for minor operations, inspections, cystoscopic examinations, et cetera, in the urological department. These were not reviewed. Before presenting the statistical data that took at least two hundred hours to gather, we must thank Dr. McCague and our anesthesia students who did so much to make this presentation possible. For this paper five hundred hospital charts were reviewed. The records kept in the anesthesia department were found to be accurate.

As you know, some member of the department sees the patient for five days after operation, and in the event there is any complication the surgeon is consulted. Autopsy findings in some cases showed that the cause of death had no relationship to the anesthesia although reported so at first.

In the series of one hundred and twenty-six kidney cases there was a surgical mortality of 5.7 per cent. This is low considering the fact that a great number of these patients were given their only chance to live.

TABLE I
KIDNEY CASES

Are q thetic	Neph- rectomy	Neph- rotomy	Exploration Kidney	Kidney	Kidney Inc. & Dr.	Neph- ropexy; Hydro- nephrosis	TOTALS
Nitrous oxide	1	2		1	2		6
Nitrous oxide and ether	10	1	3	3	6	3	26
Cyclopropane	1	1		2	5		9
Cyclopropane and ether	14	6	2	5	3	5	35
Pentothal sodium	2	1	1	1			5
Spinal	10	1	5	11	1	1	29
Spinal and nitrous oxide	4		1	1		1	6
Spinal and cyclopropane	4					İ	4
Avertin and nitrous oxide	1	1		1		1	3
Avertin and cyclopropane				1		1	1
Ether	1		1			1	2
Totals	48	13	13	26	17	9	126

TABLE II

There were no surgical deaths and no anesthetic complications in the following forty-eight cases.

NEPHRECTOMY OPERATIONS

	Cases	Recoveries	Average stay in hos- pital—days	Anesthetic compli- cations	Average
Nitrous oxide	1	1	12	None	11
Nitrous oxide and ether	10	10	30	None	40
Cyclopropane	1	1	19	None	13
Cyclopropane and ether	14	14	32	None*	38
Pentothal sodium	2	2	25	None	40
Spinal	10	10	23	None	39
Spinal and nitrous oxide	4	4	28	None	39
Spinal and cyclopropane	4	4	25	None	48
Avertin and nitrous oxide	1	1	12	None	24
Ether	1	1	15	None	2
Totals	48	48	22	0	30

*One patient had pneumonitis but had extensive secondaries in lung. He was in the hospital seventy-eight days.

In the nephrotomy group we had one patient following nitrous oxideether with a cough which lasted five days and did not influence recovery in any way. One patient died five days after operation; at the time her death was reported to be from pneumonia. This was a woman aged 67, and autopsy revealed that death was due to sepsis and multiple secondary carcinomatous lesions. This case shows the value of an autopsy. We have tried to emphasize to our student anesthetists to urge an autopsy in every death. It has been a great source of comfort to us in a few tragedies.

TABLE III
NEPHROTOMY OPERATIONS
(Usually a Risk 3 Operation)

	Cases	Recoveries	Average stay in hos- pital—days	Anesthetic complica- tions	Average
Nitrous oxide	2	1	49	None	53
Nitrous oxide and ether	1	1	35	Cough 5 days	52
Cyclopropane	1	1	40	None	52
Cyclopropane and ether	6	5	23	None	39
Pentothal Sodium	1	1	72	None	53
Spinal	1	1	30	None	38
Avertin and Nitrous oxide	1	1	34	None	20
Totals	13	11	40	1	43

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TABLE IV EXPLORATION OF KIDNEY*

*	Cases	Recoveries	Average stay in hos- pital—days	Anesthetic complica- tions	Average
Nitrous oxide and ether	3	2	58	None	33
Cyclopropane and ether	2	2	16	None	32
Pentothal sodium	1	1	13	None	35
Spinal	5	5	24	None	52
Spinal and nitrous oxide	1	1	31	None	54
Ether	1	1	28	None	8
Totals	13	12	22	0	36

^{*}Question of a tumor—done on basis of clinical picture plus doubtful laboratory findings.

In the kidney stone cases there were three complications in twenty-six cases; one case of pneumonia following nitrous oxide-oxygen anesthesia with recovery from the pneumonia but a prolonged hospital stay—fifty-eight days. We had one case of atelectasis which followed spinal analgesia but no special treatment was required. The patient's recovery was as rapid as the average—twenty-three days. The third patient had a cough before operation and this was troublesome after operation. Spinal analgesia was used but the patient had a prolonged stay in the hospital—forty-two days.

TABLE V NEPHROLITHOTOMY

	Cases	Recoveries	Average stay in hos- pital—days	Anesthetic complica- tions	Average
Nitrous oxide	1	1	58	1 pneumonia	47
Nitrous oxide and ether	3	3	25	None	41
Cyclopropane	2	2	24	None	34
Cyclopropane and ether	5	5	24	None	53
Pentothal sodium	1	1	14	None	34
Spinal	11	11	24	*	41
Avertin and nitrous oxide	1	1	20	None	41
Avertin and cyclopropane	1	1	28	None	55
Spinal and nitrous oxide	1	1	27	None	58
Totals	26	26	25	3	45

^{*} One cough 5 days; one atelectasis

TABLE VI

Abscesses, infected hydronephrosis, et cetera, come under the title of incision and drainage of kidney.

INCISION AND DRAINAGE OF KIDNEY

	Cases	Recoveries	Average stay in hos- pital—days	Anesthetic complica- tions	Average
Nitrous oxide	2	2	12	None	53
Nitrous oxide and ether	6	6	36	None	30
Cyclopropane	5	2	16	None	42
Cyclopropane and ether	3	3	11	None	38
Spinal	1	1	15	None	48
Totals	17	14	18	0	42

Other kidney operations include operations to suspend the kidney, as for ptosis, operations for obliterant vessels, et cetera.

TABLE VII
OTHER KIDNEY OPERATIONS

	Cases	Recoveries	Average stay in hos- pital—days	Anesthetic complica- tions	Average
Nitrous oxide and ether	3	3	17	None	31
Cyclopropane and ether	5	5	24	None	37
Spinal	1	1	14	None	45
Totals	9	9	18	0	37

TABLE VIII
ADRENAL TUMORS, BLADDER, AND URETERAL OPERATIONS

	Adrenal	Ureteral	Cystotomy	Fulguration of bladder	TOTALS
Nitrous oxide		2	9	12	23
Nitrous oxide and ether		5	40	18	63
Cyclopropane			13		13
Cyclopropane and ether	1	4	9		14
Pentothal sodium		1	13	8	22
Spinal	1	12	2	3	18
Avertin and nitrous oxide				1	1
Ether				2	2
Totals	2	24	86	44	156

TABLE IX
OPERATIONS FOR ADRENAL TUMORS

	Cases	Recoveries	Average tay in hos- oital—days	Anesthetic complica- ions	Average age
Cyclopropane and ether	1 1	1	22	None	56
Spinal*	1	0	50	None	21
Totals	2	1	36	0	38

^{*}The case under spinal analgesia appeared to be successful at the time of operation. However, metastasis formed early and the patient died fifty days after operation.

TABLE X
OPERATION FOR URETERAL STONES

	Cases	Recoveries	Average stay in hos- pital—days	Anesthetic complica- tions	Average
Nitrous oxide	2	2	25	None	6
Nitrous oxide and ether	5	4	33	One-coughing	39
Cyclopropane and ether	4	4	31	None	35
Pentothal sodium	1	1	28	None	52
Spinal	12	12	20	*	40
Totals	24	23	27	3	35

^{*} One coughing; one atelectasis

There was one surgical death in twenty-four operations for ureteral stones. Two patients had cough for several days—one case following nitrous oxide-ether, one following spinal. Their convalescence was uninfluenced. There was a case of partial atelectasis following spinal analgesia but no special treatment was required.

TABLE XI
CYSTOTOMY

	Cases	Recoveries	Average stay in hos- pital—days	Anesthetic complica- tions	Average age
Nitrous oxide	9	7	40	None	59
Nitrous oxide and ether	40	36	38	*	58
Cyclopropane	13	11	47	**	60
Cyclopropane and ether	9	8	34	***	60
Pentothal sodium	13	12	31	2 coughing	49
Spinal	2	2	21	None	54
Totals	86	76	35	8	57

* 2 coughing; 1 pulmonary edema.

** 1 coughing; 1 congestion

*** 1 terminal pneumonia

Cystotomy is done, as you know, for patients with urinary retention, some with uremia, some with traumatic lesions such as fractured pelvis—often the patient is gravely ill. The average age for this group is fifty-seven years. There were eight anesthetic complications. Four of these were cough, two after nitrous oxide, two after pentothal sodium; none influenced the end result. One man, aged eighty, died of bronchopneumonia seventeen days after operation, although his chest was clear for over a week after operation. This followed cyclopropane-oxygen and ½ ounce of ether. Another patient died nine days after operation, with pulmonary edema; x-rays of the chest were negative. Nitrous oxide-ether was used and the cystotomy was done for a ruptured bladder. The other complication followed a cystotomy for carcinoma of the prostate in a man aged seventy years. The patient had rales from congestive failure which lasted for fourteen days and he left the hospital in good condition thirty-two days after admission.

TABLE XII
BLADDER FULGURATION

	Cases	Recoveries	Average stay in hos- pital—days	Anesthetic complica- tions	Average
Nitrous oxide	12	12	4	1 coughing	56
Nitrous oxide and ether	18	18	12	None	53
Pentothal sodium	8	8	10	None	50
Spinal	3	3	10	None	45
Avertin and nitrous oxide	1	1	13	None	66
Ether	2	2	7	None	7
Totals	44	44	9	1	46

Bladder fulguration is done for tumors of the bladder. Most tumors of the bladder are carcinomatous. We had eight cases where the tumor could be destroyed without opening the bladder. The patients were in the hospital for only a day or two and we found this reduced the average hospital stay for this group to nine days. Only one patient had an anesthetic complication and this was cough following nitrous oxide and did not influence the end result.

TABLE XIII
PROSTATECTOMY

	Suprapubic	Transurethral	Totals
Nitrous oxide	9	5	14
Nitrous oxide and ether	30	11	41
Cyclopropane	12		12
Cyclopropane and ether	18		18
Pentothal sodium	7	5	12
Spinal	12	66	78
Avertin and nitrous oxide	1	2	3
Totals	89	89	178

Strangely, in this group we had exactly the same number of suprapubic prostatectomies as transurethral prostatectomies. The average age of the patient in the former group was sixty-five years and in the latter fifty-nine years. Of the suprapubic cases, 86 per cent. were done under the gases while 76 per cent. of the transurethral cases were done under low spinal analgesia. We felt we could use spinocaine and often get only "saddle anesthesia."

There were five anesthetic complications in the suprapubic group and two in the transurethral group. In the transurethral group one patient seventy-two years old following nitrous oxide-oxygen anesthesia ran a normal temperature for three days postoperatively, then had a chill followed by a temperature of 102.6, and died of pneumonia and uremia nine days after operation. The other patient recovered after a spinal anesthesia for transurethral resection of the prostate but had a prolonged stay of three months and twelve days due to pulmonary infection.

In the suprapubic group there were five complications. In two of these one can hardly place the blame on the anesthesia. One patient ten days after operation developed pain in the chest and had blood-tinged sputum. He recovered but was in the hospital sixty-two days. The other had a coronary attack with some question of an infarct of the lung, which developed on the seventh day and made his hospital stay thirty-eight days. In both cases cyclopropane and ether was given. In one of the three remaining complications the patient, aged seventy-four, had a laryngotracheitis and hiccoughs which played a part in his fifty-two day postoperative stay. The anesthetic was straight cyclopropane. Following pentothal sodium anesthesia one patient coughed for several days but this did not influence the result or his hospital stay. The last, a man aged seventy-five, after second-stage

prostatectomy developed rales in the chest. He died the third postoperative day and autopsy showed some consolidation of the lung and metastasis of the tumor to other parts of the body.

TABLE XIV
SUPRAPUBIC PROSTATECTOMY

	Cases	Recoveries	Average stay in hos. pital—days	Anesthetic complica- tions	Average
Nitrous oxide	9	9	35	None .	68
Nitrous oxide and ether	30	30	31	None	65
Cyclopropane	12	12	31	*	62
Cyclopropane and ether	18	17	40	**	66
Pentothal sodium	7	6	33	***	64
Spinal	12	9	26	None	69
Avertin and nitrous oxide	1	1	23	None	62
Totals	89	84	31	5	65

* One laryngotracheitis

** One lung infarct; one moist lung

*** One bronchopneumonia; one coughing

TABLE XV
TRANSURETHRAL PROSTATECTOMY

	Cases	Recoveries	Average stay in hos- pital—days	Anesthetic complica- tions	Average
Nitrous oxide	5	4	27	*	53
Nitrous oxide and ether	11	11	17	None	60
Pentothal sodium	5	4	25	None	58
Spinal	66	64	21	**	62
Spinal and nitrous oxide	2	2	21	None	61
Totals	89	85	22	2	59

* one pneumonia

** one acute respiratory infection

TABLE XVI
OTHER UROLOGICAL OPERATIONS

	Hydrocele and varicocele	Vas. op.	Orchid- ectomy	Retrograde	Amputation of penis	Epididy- mectomy	Totals
Nitrous oxide		2	1	1	1		5
Nitrous oxide and ether	1		6	1	3	2	13
Cyclopropane		1	2		4		7
Cyclopropane and ether	3						3
Pentothal sodium	3		2		2	1	8
Spinal	1	1			1		3
Avertin and nitrous oxide	1	-			İ		1
Totals	9	4	11	2	11	3	40

In the forty remaining cases we had one patient who had cough for several days after nitrous oxide-ether anesthesia for orchidectomy. Dr. McCague did not feel that this retarded or influenced the end result.

TABLE XVII

OPERATIONS FOR VARICOCELE AND HYDROCELE

	Cases	Recoveries	Average stay in hos- pital—days	Anesthetic complica- tions	Average
Nitrous oxide and ether	1	1	10	None	24
Cyclopropane and ether	3	3	6	None	32
Pentothal sodium	3	3	19	None	44
Spinal	1	1	5	None	9
Avertin and nitrous oxide	1	1	5	None	9
Totals	9	9	11	0	27

 $\begin{array}{ccc} \textbf{TABLE} & \textbf{XVIII} \\ \textbf{RETROGRADE} & \textbf{OPERATIONS} \end{array}$

	Cases	Recoveries	Average stay in hos- pital—days	Anesthetic complica- tions	Average age
Nitrous oxide	1	1	228	None	17
Nitrous oxide and ether	1	1	72	None	54
Totals	2	2	150	0	35

EPIDIDYMECTOMY

	Cases	Recoveries	Average stay in hos- pital—days	Anesthetic complica- tions	Average age
Nitrous oxide and ether	2	2	8	None	56
Pentothal sodium	1	1	6	None	24
Totals	3	3	7	0	40

OPERATIONS ON VAS DEFERENS

	Cases	Recoveries	Average stay in hos- pital—days	Anesthetic complica- tions	Average
Nitrous oxide	2	2	5	None	53
Cyclopropane	1	1	8	None	35
Spinal	1	1	6	None	55
Totals	4	4	6	0	47

TABLE XIX
OPERATIONS ON PENIS AND SCROTUM

	Cases	Recoveries	Average stay in hos- pital—days	Anesthetic complica- tions	Average
Nitrous oxide	1	1	6	None	64
Nitrous oxide and ether	3	3	7	None	54
Cyclopropane	4	4	14	None	52
Pentothal sodium	2	2	25	None	48
Spinal	1	1	20	None	49
Totals	11	11	14	0	53

ORCHIDECTOMY

	Cases	Recoveries	Average stay in hos- pital—days	Anesthetic complica- tions	Average
Nitrous oxide	1	1	24	None	43
Nitrous oxide and ether	6	6	16	1 coughing	54
Cyclopropane	2	2	76	None	59
Pentothal sodium	2	2	7	None	51
Totals	11	11	31	1	52

SUMMARY

There was only one group where we attempted to use a fixed procedure for anesthesia—that is, in the transurethral group. Here we took these frail individuals, turned them on their side, injected the spinal needle, lowered the head of the table and injected the small dose of spinocaine. We had a number of favorable comments upon this procedure from visiting urologists. Otherwise we tried to use the anesthetic best fitted to the patient. Naturally such factors as age, weight, physical status, surgical risk, temperament of the individual, length of operation, et cetera, were considered.

SUMMARY OF ANESTHETICS USED

	Kidney	Adrenal Bladder Ureter	Prostate	Others	Totals
Nitrous oxide	6	23	14	5	48
Nitrous oxide and ether	26	63	41	13	143
Cyclopropane	9	13	12	7	41
Cyclopropane and ether	35	14	18	3	70
Pentothal sodium	, 5	22	12	8	47
Spinal	29	18	78	3	128
Spinal and nitrous oxide	6				6
Spinal and cyclopropane	4				4
Avertin and nitrous oxide	3	1	3	1	8
Avertin and cyclopropane	1				1
Ether	2	2			4
Totals	126	156	178	40	1

Grand Total 500

ANESTHETIC COMPLICATIONS

	Neph.	Nephrolith- otomy	Ureter	Cystotomy	Bladder fulguration	Suprapubic	Trans- urethral	Orchid- ectomy	TOTALS
Nitrous oxide		1			1	01	1	100	3
Nitrous oxide and ether	1		1	3		~~~		1	6
Cyclopropane				2		1			3
Cyclopropane and ether				1	1	2			3
Pentothal sodium			1	2		2			4
Spinal	İ	2	2				1		6
Totals	1	3	3	8	2	5	2	1	24

ANALYSIS OF TWENTY-FOUR COMPLICATIONS FOLLOWING FIVE HUNDRED UROLOGICAL ANESTHESIAS

Cough12	Bronchopneumonia 1
Terminal pneumonia 2	Pneumonia (recovery) 1
Atelectasis 2	Laryngotracheitis 1
Pulmonary edema 1	Acute respiratory infection 1
Passive congestion 2	Lung infarct 1

As we look back on the records here presented we note that 50 per cent of the complications reported were cough. Of this group over 50 per cent had the cough beforehand. We feel rather proud of this record.

WANTED-A NURSE ANESTHETIST

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Executive Director, Nurse Placement Service, Chicago, Illinois

FOREWORD

In contemplating your selection of subjects and speakers on this program, one is deeply impressed with your apparent eagerness to improve and perfect your knowledge of anesthesiology. That you have arranged for one speaker who will contribute nothing directly specialized, toward vour scientific. technical fund of information or skill is, I assume, somewhat a departure from the usual, but proves your awareness of problems of a professional nature in the solution of which you feel that a specialist in another science, that of placement and vocational guidance, may assist. But I am here not only to give but to get, to the end that it is hoped that this, my first appearance before any group of anesthetists, may lead to a further knitting together of our common objectives of better service in your field and in mine. Preparation, experience, selection, public relations, personal adjustments, job analyses and work conditions are factors so vitally concerned in the placement of nurse anesthetists as to be considered basic in the proper administration of anesthesia and prevention of anesthesia accidents and fatalities.

Read at the joint meeting of the anesthetists of Illinois, Indiana and Michigan, held in conjunction with the Tri-State Hospital Assembly, held in Chicago, Ill., May 1 and 2, 1940.

They involve the happiness and security of the worker, the proper functioning of the hospital, the success of the surgeon and most of all the welfare of the patient.

A frank statement of conditions of employment of nurse anesthetists as seen from Nurse Placement Service, the watch tower and professionally sponsored placement service which I represent, is a laying of the cards on the table in which your aid is most heartily invited. This Service already enjoys the generous and gracious help of your executive secretary's informal advisory and consultation service whenever we request it (which is often indeed). We delve deeply into your literature and read the splendid reports of your committees. However, there is also seen a need that every member of your organization share in the conscious conviction that organized effort in the placement of nurse anesthetists is a very important avenue toward the goals you have set up in the

splendid six-point program of objectives as stated in the Certificate of Incorporation of the American Association of Nurse Anesthetists, upon which I most heartily congratulate and commend you.

A STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The scope of this paper will not permit enlargement of any but a few of the most conspicuous aspects of the problems of nurse anesthetist placement, which are in some respects similar to those of placement in any phase of nursing, but enhanced by the fact that you are engaged in a dual or twofold field of service. A listing of some of the major points will strike a responsive note, I feel sure, in the minds of some individual nurse anesthetists among you who have personally experienced (and often perhaps suffered because of) some of the situations and conditions that will be indicated or at least implied. I feel equally sure that employers of nurse anesthetists who may be present will recognize and concur in some points at which they have met near-defeat. No effort has been made to record the items of this surview (to borrow a word from Carlyle) in the order of their importance.

A study of our records reveals that:

- 1. The supply of able, well qualified nurse anesthetists is not adequate to meet the demand.
- 2. There are, on the opposite hand, many nurse anesthetists who are not readily placeable.
- 3. The turnover in this field of service is large in comparison with many other types of hospital positions, and the average length of service is unusually short by comparison with that in many of the fields of nursing.
- 4. Salaries offered are not on the whole equivalent to the nurse an-

esthetists' stated minimum rates, and considering the fact that an anesthetist's active career can cover only about two decades, and also considering the tremendous responsibility they carry and the strain to which they are subjected, and the long and continuous hours of work as well as hours on call. To make such adjustments often gives the worker a bad start in a new position.

- 5. Standards of qualifications demanded by employers and through the advancement of anesthesiology and the closely related science of surgery are rather rapidly advancing, yet some nurse anesthetists are not seen to be taking steps to keep themselves up-to-date through the means at hand.
- 6. Supplying the hospitals in smaller cities and rural communities with satisfactory and stable anesthesia service is rather a grave problem and has its counterpart only in the supplying of satisfactory and stable general duty nursing service for such hospitals.
- 7. The combination of duties in the smaller or outlying institutions expected of a nurse anesthetist has no counterpart in nursing per se or in any other vocation, as far as we can discover.
- 8. Nurse anesthetists very frequently specify an interest in working for one surgeon only; these types of positions are conspicuously lacking in number.
- 9. Employers are often very discriminating in their statements of special qualifications as to age (mature and experienced but not past forty or forty-five); marital status (must live in); total abstinence from alcoholic liquor, and smoking on or off duty.
- 10. Positions for nurse anesthe-

tists very frequently demand immediate filling and although the average leeway of time for negotiations is limited, a personal interview in advance of appointment is often required.

11. Nurse anesthetists are often seen to set themselves and their art apart because of their specialized nature, with a reputed lack of appreciation for the interrelation of their service with the institution and its personnel as a whole, according to reports from employers.

12. Nurse anesthetists, either justly or unjustly, or because of the very intensity induced by the character of their work, show a greater sensitivity to what they consider unfair administration in an institution so far as they themselves, and their positions, are concerned.

I have already consumed a considerable part of my time in this over-all view. Each of the problems mentioned could in itself become the title of a dissertation. Many of them are as ininterwoven as cause and effect, or contribute to the well-known vicious circle.

ANESTHESIA SERVICE IN THE SMALL HOSPITAL

One problem which thrusts itself forward, is that of the combination job that is so closely allied to the problem of anesthesia service for the small hospitals, which rarely have enough work in anesthesia per se to require a full time anesthetist. Yet these hospitals must have this specialized service available upon immediate demand at any hour of the day or night. The salary offered in these institutions is often thought not fully compensatory and increases are not often forthcoming. Our sympathetic interest is equally divided between the worker and the in-

stitution. Nurse anesthetists do not like these jobs, often taking them under protest when nothing else is available and consequently do not remain long in them. It is a problem for conference between leaders in your group and the small hospital administrators. Often the crux of the problem lies in the character and amount of the nonanesthesia duties required. As this paper is being written, positions for nurse anesthetists on our books include some requiring the following combinations:

- No. 1—Nurse anesthetist to serve as scrub nurse—it is presumed but not stated when someone else is giving the anesthetic, yet her interest in anesthesia may well divide her attention.
- No. 2—Nurse anesthetist combined with operating room supervision. How is this possible?
- No. 3—Nurse anesthetist combined with obstetrical supervision.
- No. 4—Nurse anesthetist to serve as Record Librarian — there are many positions of this type requiring additional specialized preparation.
- No. 5—Nurse anesthetist to serve also as x-ray or laboratory technician or both, all three services requiring prolonged and expensive preparation, which means that with her fundamental nursing course, she must be a kind of a four-dimension wonder.
- No. 6—Nurse anesthetist to serve as office assistant.
- No. 7—Nurse anesthetist to relieve any place in the institution, calling for much versatility of ability and adaptability.
- No. 8—Nurse anesthetist to do general duty.

Although I am a nurse and not an

anesthetist and you are both nurse and anesthetist in one, I am sure you agree that a combination of anesthesia service with any kind of supervision in any service or department of a hospital is impractical and unfair to either phase of work. Equally as hazardous and as vicious a practice is the combination with the lower level job of general duty, that is, staff nursing in the hospital, where in some instances we have known the nurse anesthetist to have been subject to the repeated practice of being called from the bedside of a patient for whom she had started a treatment, being rushed to the operating room with the patient awaiting her there, and with inadequate time to set up and examine her anesthetic equipment or become informed of all preoperative findings for the patient, nor does she have time to regain the emotional composure so necessary for careful work. On the other hand I think you may agree that the combination with record librarian or office assistant work may, under the right conditions of administration, not only be a compatible combination but may even serve to offer an anesthetist a safety valve from the strain of too steady and continuous a service as anesthetist. Such "other" work which may be consistent, may be welcomed by the average anesthetist not fairly busy at her specialty and would surely assist the hospital in meeting the demands on its possibly limited budget. It remains for your organization to outline and publicize the types of service that lend themselves satisfactorily to combination with anesthesia service, though in the final analysis much will depend on the individual worker and the management of her schedule by those in authority in the institution.

May it not be possible in these days of rapid transportation and during this more or less pioneer stage of standard-

ization of anesthetists' service and education, for a group of several small hospitals in a given general locality to employ two nurse anesthetists with a schedule of regular days in each hospital, each anesthetist serving her turn on call for emergencies and as relief to the other for night calls, so that one might go to bed at least every other night knowing that she can probably stay there until morning, and also have regular off-duty periods for recreation when she may do as she pleases and go out to dinner, knowing that she can stay for dessert. Such a program has worked successfully in other lines of technical service in nursing and those services allied to nursing. Perhaps it has been tried and discarded on the basis of "too many bosses." That problem could be hurdled by part-time jobs for two nurse anesthetists in two or more institutions. You would be more familiar than your speaker with the obstacles, but to a professional placement service that has never received such a call its possibilities seem favorable and would certainly seem preferable to the present system of employing an anesthetist who is a jack-of-alltrades, which plan does not seem to work at all in the majority of situations.

THE ARGUMENT AGAINST PROFESSIONAL ISOLATION

The selection of the right nurse anesthetist for a given job is often complicated not only by the restrictive interests of these workers as to the locality and the type of job they will consider, but frequently because of the available workers' lack of knowledge or skill for the certain specific demands of the position as stated by the employer, which includes administration of a particular kind of anesthetic in which the candidate does not feel skilled. Keeping up to date is of course

necessary in all professions, and most of all in one that is emerging from an apprentice plan to a truly recognized professional status, as both nursing and anesthesiology are at this time. Keeping up to date and well rounded in specialty through courses, observation of demonstrations and visiting other institutions, membership in organizations pledged to the development of the particular science, attending conventions, extensive reading-all seem within the realm of possibilities for every worker who has the proper interest. What many nurses and nurse anesthetists do not realize is that their profession cannot reach its highest level of performance and value if it assumes an attitude of isolation from allied interests. The very fact that nurse anesthetists' associations, both national and sectional, meet with other groups as you are doing in this convention, is a superb example of what each anesthetist may do in her individual hospital and community. Call it cooperation, call it public relations, call it by whatever name you please, the result for good to the individual and the specialized group will be assured. It is the best way to bring about through the medium of interpretation of a profession's needs the proper salary rates and working conditions, as well as standardization of preparation, and is the most hopeful plan for the satisfactory adjustment of these problems.

CONCLUSION

In the beginning of this paper it was indicated by your speaker that a professional placement service is a means of promoting and promulgating the things for which the American Association of Nurse Anesthetists stands. The start that has been made in this direction can be greatly augmented. It means that we, as placement specialists, and you as nurse anesthetists must

know each other better and should exchange information more specifically. You are providing the brick for us to lay in the building of your structure through service. Our objective of service of a high order to the nurse is as great yet no greater in importance than our objective of service of a high order to the field. If it be possible in the future for your group to make certain studies you would find our files at the disposal of your organization. One study, for example, which should be greatly beneficial as a basis for reform would be an analysis of the hundreds of replies from nurse anesthetists when referred to positions, giving the reasons why they were or were not interested in the positions to which they were referred. Your organization has outlined a splendid educational minimum. You have raised your standards for membership. I hope you may sometime outline, as other national organizations have done, the minimum requirements for different types of anesthesia positions for placement services and employers to abide by, as well as job analyses as a basis for these requirements. If money were available to your group to provide more expert consultation service for your field of employment and guidance to the extent that our service is now aware that it could be used, much would be gained in the advancement of your case. Meanwhile it is a source of much comfort to the staff and board of Nurse Placement Service to see the strides your organization is making as pioneers on new frontiers, and to have the good fortune of our respective offices being in the same city, with your busy executive secretary so helpful in advising us as the letters and telegrams and personal calls and phone calls pour in to Nurse Placement Service from hamlet, town, and city-"Wanted-a Nurse Anesthetist!"

ANESTHETIC COMPLICATIONS, DEATHS AND THEIR PREVENTION

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I agree with Clement¹ that we may classify anesthetic complications and deaths into the immediate and remote types. The immediate complications and deaths are those that occur on the operating table. These are the real tragedies of medicine. They appear suddenly but not without some warning that may or may not be heeded by the anesthetist.

RESPIRATORY FAILURE

Respiratory failure may be due to mechanical or non-mechanical factors.

Mechanical Factors:

- 1) Mechanical obstruction from malposition of the head and jaw.
- 2) Obstruction by base of the tongue or by adenoids.
- 3) Edema of the larynx.
- 4) Growths along the respiratory tract.
- Extreme Trendelenburg position, thus throwing greatly increased load on the diaphragm.
- 6) Aspiration of debris. Various kinds of debris or foreign substances that may be aspirated into the trachea, bronchi and lungs with serious or fatal results such as:
 - a) Vomitus
 - b) Mucus
 - c) Teeth or particles from broken teeth
 - d) Blood from surgery of the nose and mouth
 - e) Sponges
 - f) Instruments

Read at the ninth annual meeting of the Pennsylvania Association of Nurse Anesthetists, held in Pittsburgh, Pa., May 8-10, 1940.

- g) Pus from pharyngeal or peritonsillar abscess
- h) Bronchiectatic debris in lung surgery.

Non-Mechanical Factors:2

- 1. Central respiratory failure.
 - a) Overdose of preanesthetic medication. This is more common in children.
 - b) Overdose of anesthetic agent; most common with intravenous anesthesia.
 - c) Increased intracranial pressure; common in brain tumors.
- 2. Accidents due to peripheral respiratory interference,
 - a) Interference with the normal balance of oxygen and carbon dioxide in the pulmonary al-
 - b) Interference with the proper diffusion of gases through the alveolar membrane due to physical impairment of that membrane.
 - c) Interference with the oxygen carrying capacity of the blood.
 - d) Interference with the normal action of the oxidation ferment in the tissue cells.

CIRCULATORY ACCIDENTS

The circulatory system does not escape the influence of the anesthetic.

All of the anesthetic agents exert a direct and indirect effect upon the heart and the circulatory system. There is a direct action upon the cardiac muscles; and an indirect action upon the intrinsic and extrinsic nerves of the heart. Similar action is present upon the bulbar and retrobulbar centers that regulate the arterial pressure.

Accidents may occur due to a change in the blood pressure. This change may be attributed to anoxia. That is to say—the heart may be so depressed by oxygen deficiency that it will fail to respond to the stimulus present in the body at the time.

Accidents Due to Increased Blood Pressure

- 1) Rapid asphyxia. Asphyxia will cause a rise in the blood pressure in proportion to the degree of asphyxia and the rapidity with which it develops. The rise in the blood pressure is greater when accompanied by struggling. There may be a rise varying from fifty to one hundred fifty millimeters of mercury. After reaching the peak the pressure then drops rapidly to below normal. The fall is of short duration, since the blood pressure returns to normal when oxygen is administered.
- 2) Increased adrenin in the blood stream. This is caused by fear, struggling, emotional excitement, et cetera. The increased adrenin will cause a rapid rise in the blood pressure. The outcome of this rapid rise in blood pressure may be:
 - a) Acute cardiac dilatation: This is due to weakened heart muscle; that is, insufficient force to circulate the blood through the coronaries, thereby causing

the heart to stop as a result of fatigue and anoxia. If the last two mentioned do not cause cardiac arrest, the patient may die a few days later from passive congestion and pneumonia.

b) Rupture of blood vessel. An atheromatous blood vessel may rupture under the stress of increased blood pressure. Results depend on the location of the rupture.

Circulatory Accidents Due to Decreased Blood Pressure

Circulatory accidents due to decreased blood pressure are due to hemorrhage or shock. When the blood fails to deliver sufficient oxygen to the heart, brain cells, and other tissues of the body, to support the combustion of their activity, death is inevitable.

Shock and hemorrhage are the same. Shock is a form of hemorrhage, and hemorrhage is a form of asphyxia. The problem, in either case, is one of prevention of cardiac anoxia.

- a) Hemorrhage Hemorrhage reduces the oxygen to the heart and other parts of the body. Such a condition can be corrected by administration of intravenous solution to maintain proper pressure on the vascular system; and by the administration of a high concentration of oxygen under high tension.
- b) Shock—is a circulatory deficiency, not cardiac and not vasomotor in origin, characterized by decreased total blood volume, decreased volume flow and by hemo-concentration. The origin of shock may be traumatic or anesthetic. As a rule the two causes work together. Shock is

usually recognized by a drop in the systolic blood pressure, and accelerated pulse with decreasing volume.

Accidents Due to Reflex Ventricular Fibrillation

This type of accident occurs between five and thirty years of age. Ventricular fibrillation is a wormlike movement of the ventricular muscles with the heart in full diastole. It consists of unsynchronized contraction and relaxation of the individual muscle fibers, which provide no circulation of the blood. Deaths from ventricular fibrillation are due to cardiac anoxia. If the fibrillation passes off before the reserve oxygen in the heart tissues is consumed the heart will regain its normal activity almost immediately. If, however, the fibrillation holds until the reserve oxygen is so depleted that anoxic depression prevents the re-establishment of normal cardiac activity, the heart will fail to function again. Ventricular fibrillation occurs without warning, and must pass off in less than a minute or death will result.

Ventricular fibrillation is most likely to occur in the periods of life when general physiological activity is greatest, that is, between the ages of five and thirty years. Clinical recognition of the phenomenon depends largely upon the appreciation of predisposing circumstances surrounding the case at hand.

If the pulse stops without warning during the induction of anesthesia, the cause is probably ventricular fibrillation. Respiration stops almost immediately after the ventricles fibrillate. Unless the anesthetist has his finger on the pulse constantly, fibrillation will be well upon its way before it is recognized. The respiratory cessation will likely be mistaken for one of the frequent respiratory paus-

es occurring at this stage of anesthesia and death occurs almost before the anesthetist is aware that anything is wrong. If during any period of light anesthesia, when epinephrine is being used by the surgeon for hemostasis, the pulse stops without warning, there is probably a ventricular fibrillation. Embolism and acute cardiac dilatation might be confused with ventricular fibrillation; although in none of these will the pulse go from normal to nothing between two heart beats.

Causes of Ventricular Fibrillation

- Increased activity of the sympathetic nervous system and the resultant increase of the adrenin in the blood, together with a probable increase in the irritability of the ventricular muscle itself.
- Emotional excitement or fears; this stimulates the sympathetic nervous system and the adrenals.

MISCELLANEOUS ACCIDENTS

Under this heading we refer to the following conditions:

- Atelectasis—may appear during the operation and anesthesia or later. Atelectasis may be due to:
 - a) Mucus plug in the main bronchus.
 - b) Aspiration of vomitus during anesthesia.
 - c) Splinting of diaphragm due to severe pain on inspiration. This is more prevalent in upper abdominal surgery.
- Tracheal Collapse.—This occurs in thyroid surgery. Avoided by using orotracheal anesthesia.
- 3. Cerebral hemorrhage or emboli may occur during anesthesia or later; usually due to gross ar-

- terial disease or endocarditis. Truly, these may be considered as accidents under anesthesia but not anesthetic accidents.
- 4. Convulsions may occur during anesthesia. If prolonged or severe they may cause death indirectly by circulatory and respiratory arrest. More common in children with ether, ethyl chloride or gas anesthesia.
- 5. Paroxysmal tachycardia may appear under anesthesia as well as under any other circumstance. As a rule, there is no need for alarm, and the heart usually returns to normal without serious results.
- Cerebral asphyxia—Anoxia will cause brain damage. In circulatory or respiratory failure, damage to the brain is inevitable unless the oxygen supply to that organ is maintained by artificial respiration.
- 7. Status lymphaticus—occurs only in children. This condition is a great help to the anesthetist when explanation for certain tragedies are necessary. However, status lymphaticus may be the cause and should not be overlooked.
- 8. Injury to the eyes—Conjunctivitis and traumatic keratitis are the usual complications. They are less common than in previous years. As a rule these accidents are due to carelessness on the part of the anesthetist.
- 9. Postoperative hyperthermia—An abnormally high body temperature following an anesthetic is less common than would be expected. Fever develops within four to six hours, and is probably due to the effect of the anesthetic agent on the heat regulation center in the hypothalamic area.

- 10. Anesthetic explosions—This is a subject in itself. Extensive investigation is being carried on at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and by the University of Pittsburgh School of Medicine in collaboration with the United States Bureau of Mines. It will suffice at this time to say that the sources of ignition of inflammable agents during anesthesia are open flame, cautery and electric spark.
- 11. Remote or delayed causes of death may occur any time within seventy-two hours after the operation. When the patient is transferred from the operating room the anesthetic complications are not at an end. Anesthetic agents may be the cause of death up to within seventy-two hours following their administration, viz:
 - a) Respiratory complications:

 Bronchitis, p n eu m o n i a,
 lung abscess, atelectasis,
 et cetera; caused by irritating anesthetic agent,
 poor ventilation, aspiration
 of mucus, pus, blood, et
 cetera. Frequently an overdose of anesthetic agent is
 the offending cause.
 - b) Acidosis—by the term acidosis is meant a decrease in the alkali reserve of the body, and hence a disturbance of the acid-base equilibrium. This may be due to over-dosage of the anesthetic agent, lack of carbon dioxide, dehydration, et cetera.
 - c) Postanesthetic psychoses
 —These usually occur in old persons. This condition is seldom fatal.

TREATMENT

Preventive

- Careful preanesthetic examination to determine the type of risk; and to guide in the selection of preanesthetic medication and the anesthetic.
- Adequate preliminary medication to prevent fright, minimize struggle and suppress sympathetic hyperactivity.
- The selection of anesthetic agent or agents best suited for the particular case.
- Do not rush the induction period.
- 5) Avoid external stimuli during the induction period.
- 6) The anesthetic level should be varied to conform to the progress of the surgical procedures and continued deep narcosis should be avoided.
- Airway should be open and efficient breathing maintained at all times.
- Accurate record of blood pressure, pulse and respiration at all times.

9 The time factor in surgery is a vital factor that is frequently overlooked. The degree of depression varies directly with the operating time and the depth of narcosis.

Active

Be prepared to deal with any anesthetic emergencies or complications that may occur, such as vomiting, convulsions, shock, et cetera. Stimulants, oxygen under pressure, and suction equipment should be available for emergency treatment at all times during anesthesia.

In conclusion, I wish to say that teamwork between the surgeon, the anesthetist and the nurses is extremely essential to the success of every operation. Neither should make unreasonable demands upon the other, but should coordinate their efforts in the best interest of the patient.

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DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

ANATOMY OF THE RESPIRATORY SYSTEM

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THE BRONCHIAL TREE

In man the respiratory system consists of nose, mouth, pharynx, larynx, trachea, bronchi, bronchioles, terminal bronchioles, respiratory bronchioles, alveolar ducts, alveolar sacs and their eventual alveoli; a huge number of these bronchioles, air spaces and alveoli being grouped within a closed serous membrane sac (pleura) to constitute a lung.

Air entering through the nose or mouth passes down the pharynx, through the larynx and into the trachea (a cylindrical structure composed of cartilaginous rings, situated in the center of the upper thorax). The trachea at its lower end bifurcates into two main bronchi, one proceeding to and within the right lung, the other proceeding to and within the left lung. Each of these main bronchi divides in-

to bronchioles, and these in turn into many progressively smaller bronchioles, all terminating eventually in minute alveoli. Thus, air passing down the trachea is conducted through an ever increasing number of progressively smaller air passages until it reaches the final alveoli, within the structures of which the actual exchange of gases takes place between the respired air within the alveoli and the circulatory blood as it courses through the tiny capillaries which so bountifully invest the walls of each alveolus.

While the alveoli themselves are individually exceedingly small in size, they exist in huge numbers (something like four hundred million in an adult lung). As a result of this, there is ex-

posed to respiratory air an alveolar surface equal to something like one hundred times the surface of the entire external body. Because of this tremendous alveolar area with which the pulmonary circulation is brought into contact, a very effective exchange of gases takes place between the alveolar air and the blood flowing through the pulmonary capillaries, even during the brief period of transit of that circulatory blood through the lungs.

It is to be noted that the trachea, bronchi, bronchioles and air sacs are merely conductors of respiration air, and that while the bronchi by alterations in their caliber (alterations in the size of their lumen) contribute to the physical effectiveness of inspiration and

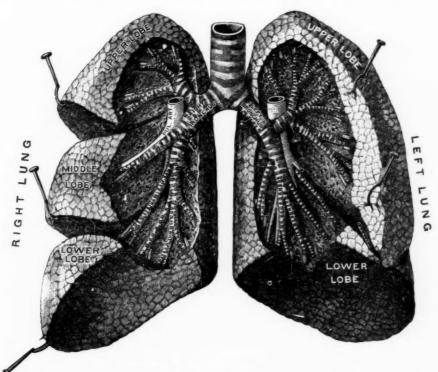


Fig. 1. Bronchi and Bronchioles: Lobes and Lobules. The lungs have been widely separated and tissue cut away to expose the air tubes. (Gray's Anatomy, courtesy Lea & Febiger.)

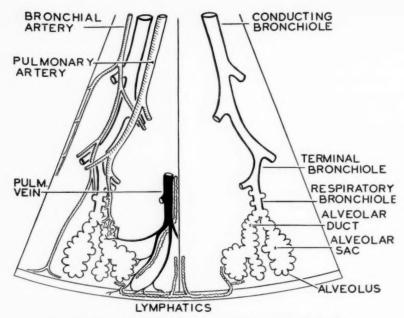


Fig. 2. Structure of a primary respiratory unit of the lung. (A Method of Anatomy, J. Boileau Grant, courtesy Wm. Wood & Co.)

expiration, these air conductors do not of themselves enter into the act of actual respiration; as that exchange of gases between (a) respiratory air and (b) pulmonary circulation, takes place only in the respiratory bronchioles and in the alveoli themselves.

Illustrative of the above, Macklin proposes considering the bronchial tree as consisting of two parts:-the first part to embrace the mere air conduits, which extend from the trachea to and including the terminal bronchioles; (these "branches" and "twigs" of the "tree" possessing no respiratory function) (Fig. 1)—the second part, to embrace the actual respiratory structures, which lie distal to the terminal bronchioles, (these "leaves" of the bronchial tree constituting the structures in which the actual respiratory function takes place). Each of these individual leaves of the respiratory

tree embraces a cluster of basic structures (respiratory bronchioles, alveolar ducts, alveolar sacs and alveoli; together with their arteries, veins and lymphatics), this basic group constituting the anatomical and physiological primary respiratory unit of the lung (Fig. 2). It is the distensible or "bellows" part of the lung structure.

In the foregoing outline, the modern conception is presented of "terminal bronchioles" emptying air into "respiratory bronchioles"—these respiratory bronchioles dividing into "alveolar ducts" and "alveolar sacs," from the walls of which evaginate the final minute sacculations called "alveoli"; this "assembly" (of a terminal bronchiole, with its own little group of attendant ducts, sacs and eventual alveoli, together with their vessels, nerves, muscular tissue and connective tissue), constituting the structural and physio-

logical unit of the lung. The older terms "atria" and "infundibula" which have caused considerable confusion in the past (and being without particular physiological significance, according to Starling) have been purposely discarded from these present notes, in favor of the more modern terminology.

THE LUNGS (PULMONES).

The lungs themselves may be considered as two large closed membranous sacs, completely enveloping their enclosed bronchi, bronchioles, air sacs, alveoli, et cetera, and occupying the greater part of the thoracic cavity.

Each lung is divided by deep fissures into *lobes*; the right lung into three lobes, the left lung into two lobes.

Each lobe is made up of a great number of *lobules*. The outlines of the peripheral layer of these lobules are visible on the external surface of the lungs in the form of clearly defined pigmented lines identifying their polyhedral boundaries.

The right and left lung are separated from each other by an area called the mediastinum, which area contains the heart, trachea, esophagus and other structures. By reason of the fact that the heart encroaches upon the left lung, the left lung is smaller than the right.

The root of the lung is the term applied to that area of the lung through which a number of structures both enter it and leave it at the wedge-shaped depression called the hilum that indents its mesial surface. These structures which pass into and out of the lung at its hilum, and which constitute its root, are notably (1) the pulmonary arteries and veins coming from, and returning to the heart, (2) bronchi the trachea, (3) pulmonary nerves, lymphatic vessels, bronchial glands and aerolar tissue. This group of structures is held together by an investment of pleura which is a continuation of the mediastinal pleura described on page 172. The root of the lung constitutes a pedicle by which each lung is attached to the mediastinum.

THE PLEURAE.

The pleurae are two serous membranes, one right and one left, each of

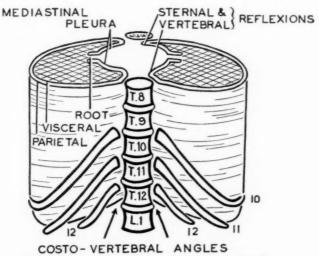


Fig. 3. The pleurae and their reflexions, from behind. (A Method of Anatomy, J. Boileau Grant, courtesy Wm. Wood & Co.)

which constitutes the covering for the lung which lies within it. After completely investing the entire lung structure itself, each pleura reflects mesially as a continuation of itself to cover first the root of the lung, then to cover the mediastinum, and finally from the sternal and vertebral reflexions, to line the walls of the thoracic cavity (Fig. 3).

The inner layer of pleural membrane, which is inseparably fused with the lung that it covers, (extending into the interlobar fissure) is called the *visceral pleura* or *pulmonary pleura*.

The outer layer of pleural membrane, which is fixed to and which lines the thoracic cavity in its various dimensions, is called the *parietal pleura*. Its various areas are named descriptively as follows according to the precise structures with which they are associated:—

Superiorly, that portion of the parietal pleura which rises up into the neck over the apex of the lung, is called the cervical pleura or "cupola of the pleura." Laterally, that portion of the parietal pleura which lines and is affixed to the internal surfaces of the ribs and intercostal spaces, is called the costal pleura. Inferiorly, that portion of the parietal pleura which invests and is affixed to the diaphragm, is called the diaphragmatic pleura. Mesially, that portion of the parietal pleura which reflects posteriorly from the sternum (sternal reflexion) to pass over and cover the pericardium and other anterior mediastinal structures, is called the mediastinal pleura. Likewise, that portion of the parietal pleura which reflects anteriorly from the vertebral column (vertebral reflexion) to pass over and cover the esophagus and other posterior mediastinal structures, is also called the mediastinal pleura (Fig. 4).

While the foregoing several areas of the pleurae are for purposes of identification described by the names noted, it is to be remembered that the various portions of each pleural membrane are actually continuous with each other; each constitutes a continuous unbroken membranous sac.

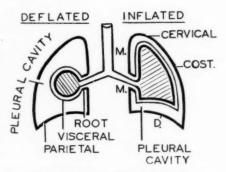


Fig. 4. The pleurae; cervical, costal, diaphragmatic, mediastinal. The lung is represented as a balloon with a stalk. (A Method of Anatomy, J. Boileau Grant, courtesy Wm. Wood & Co.)

THE PLEURAL CAVITY.

Where the pulmonary pleurae and the costal pleurae lie in apposition to each other, their surfaces are separated by only a thin layer of lymph which lies between them, which is secreted there for lubricating the slippage of their surfaces over each other. in the normal state these surfaces are in actual contact with each other, the space between them constitutes a potential cavity, which becomes an actual cavity when air or liquid is introduced between them, either through the chest wall, or through a lesion in the lung, or as a result of pathological exudation; (pneumothorax, hydrothorax, empyema, et cetera). The space (potential or actual) existing between the visceral pleura and the parietal pleura, is called the pleural cavity (Fig. 5).

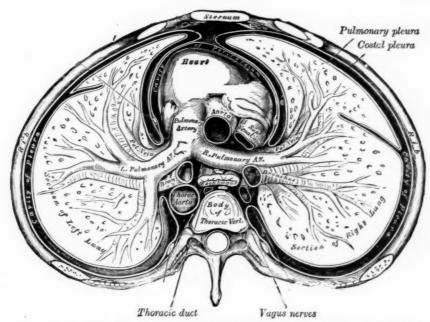


Fig. 5. A transverse section of the thorax showing the pulmonary pleura, costal pleura and the contents of the middle and posterior mediastinum. The pleural and pericardial cavities are exaggerated since normally there is no space between visceral and parietal pleura and between pericardium and heart. (Gray's Anatomy, courtesy Lea & Febiger.)

THE SIMPLE MECHANICS OF BREATHING

The thorax may be defined as that part of the body cavity enclosed within the bony cage which is formed by the ribs, the sternum and the thoracic vertebrae, extending from the neck to the abdomen. It is a closed cavity, entirely shut off from contact with the outside.

Together with the other thoracic viscera, the lungs completely fill the closed thoracic cavity. Their membranous covering of pulmonary pleura lies laterally in intimate contact with the costal-pleura-lined walls of the thorax.

This close apposition of the structural lung covering, to its opposed pleurallined thoracic walls, is caused and

maintained by the negative pressure which during life is normally present in the potential cavity that exists between that lung covering and the thoracic walls. Accordingly, when a mechanical enlargement in size and volume of the thoracic cavity takes place, it is accompanied by a corresponding enlargement in the size and volume of the lungs. The normal size of the thorax and of its contained lungs, is regarded as that which exists at the end of an ordinary expiratory movement-when all of the respiratory muscles are at rest. Normal breathing is regarded as consisting of an active inspiration, followed by a passive expiration.

Inspiration. The act of inspiration results from a mechanical enlargement

of the thoracic cavity, which is effected in the following manner:—

- (1) Contraction of the muscles of the diaphragm pull that structure markedly downward, thus enlarging the size of the thorax in its superior-inferior dimension. Accompanying this descent of the diaphragm, the abdominal viscera are compressed downward and force the abdominal wall outward.
- (2) Contraction of inspiratory muscles attached to various ribs, vertebrae, the sternum, et cetera, pulls the ribs upward and outward, thus increasing the size of the thorax in that dimension.

These enlargements in size of the thorax in its various dimensions, create an increased negative pressure within the pleural cavity which lies between the thoracic walls and the lung covering-this "suction" effect keeping the pulmonary pleura in continued close apposition to the chest wall during the enlargement in volume which necessarily accompanies the thoracic expansion. As this mechanically induced enlargement in volume of the lung takes place, air is drawn into it from the outside atmosphere, through the freely open respiratory tract; and the air so taken into the lungs in this mechanistic way, constitutes an inspiration.

Expiration. The act of normal expiration is a more passive procedure, being accomplished chiefly by merely physical forces. As the inspiratory muscles relax, the following sequence of events transpires:—

 The diaphragm returns upward to its normal, relaxed, arched position. It is assisted in this return by upward pressure from

- the abdominal viscera which were forced downward during inspiration, but which now return to their normal positions, assisted by the contractive elasticity of the stretched abdominal wall.
- (2) The weight and torsion of the ribs cause their portion of the thorax to sink back to resting position.
- (3) During these diminutions in size of the thoracic cavity in its various dimensions, the elastic tissues of the lungs are enabled to correspondingly contract from their expanded "inspiratory" volume. As they do so, they force their air out into the atmosphere, through the open respiratory tract. When the thorax and lungs have reached their normal "resting" position, an expiration has been effected.

Note: While during expiration the intercostal muscles do contract to pull the ribs together, and the bronchial wall muscles do shorten and narrow the bronchi, these forces are not sufficiently great to change the designation of the normal expiratory act from an essentially passive function, to that of an active one.

Discussion. As a matter of record, it is to be noted that the foregoing classical description of the mechanics involved in the act of inspiration is at slight technical variance with a contention which has been urged, that "atmospheric positive pressure," and not "intrapleural negative pressure" causes the lung expansion to parallel thoracic-cavity expansion during the inspiratory phase. Both factors are involved; but avoiding many argumentative details, it would seem that an inclusive summing up of the salient controversial features is achieved,

by stating that the act of normal inspiration results from changes in the pressures which are presented to the surfaces of the pulmonary pleurae, during, and as a result of, inspiratory enlargement of the thoracic cavity. As intrapleural negative pressure is increased by the expanding thorax, its outward pull on the external surface of the pulmonary pleura is "accommodated" by the degree of positive pressure which is communicated to the internal surface of that pulmonary pleura from the atmosphere, with which it is in communication through the open respiratory tract. As Graham has aptly stated, the passage of air down the trachea and into the lungs, is essentially a suction action.

PULMONARY VENTILATION.

If at the end of an ordinary inspiration, a further forcible inspiratory effort is made, it will be found that an additional amount of air can be breathed in. The average amount of this additional volume, in normal adults, is approximately 1,500 to 2,000 cc. The air which can be so added to the lungs through this additional available volume of inspiration, is called complemental air.

The air which is inhaled and exhaled during ordinary breathing is called *tidal* air. Tidal volume for the average adult during quiet breathing is about 500 cc. per inspiration.

If at the end of an ordinary expiration, a further forcible expiratory effort is made, it will be found that an additional approximately 1,500 cc. of air may be exhaled. The air which can be so expelled from the lungs through this additional available volume of expiration, is called *supplemental* air.

The combined volumes of: complemental air, tidal air, and supplemental air (the total amount of air which can be exhaled after a maximal inspiration, or that can be inhaled after a maximal expiration) is called the Vital Capacity. This maximum possible amount of an individual's forced respiratory exchange, averages in a normal adult about 4,000 cc.

But even by means of the most forceful expiratory movement, it is not possible to exhale all of the air from the lungs, an approximately 1,500 cc. of air remaining. This air which remains in the lungs after such maximal forced exhalation is called *residual* air.

2,000 cc. Complemental air

500 cc. Tidal air

1,500 cc. Supplemental air

1,500 cc. Residual air

5,500 cc. Total Capacity of the respiratory organs.

Obviously the total capacity of the respiratory organs will vary considerably among different sized individuals ...and corresponding variations in the volume of residual air, supplemental air, complemental air, tidal volume and dead space in various individuals will result.

Not all authors adopt the same "average" figure for these several volumes. The table herein used is that of Waller, as published by Graham, Williams and others.

Dead Space Air. Not all of the air which is breathed in during an inspiration reaches the actual pulmonary alveoli, as a portion of it is contained within the merely conductive "branches" and "twigs" of the bronchial tree at the completion of the inspiration. This air which remains within the lumen of this non-respiratory portion of the bronchial tree at the end of a respiratory phase, is called dead space air. Since, as already stated, the

size of this "dead space" varies with individuals, so does the volume of dead space air vary with the individual, but in an average adult, during quiet breathing, the average volume of dead space air is about 150 cc.

From the foregoing it will be seen that while tidal volume of breathing may average 500 cc., only about 350 cc. of that inspired air reaches the actual respiratory areas, to mix with the approximately 3,000 cc. of "stationary air" already there.

At the end of an inspiration, the dead space air consists of the atmosphere that has just been breathed in, practically uncontaminated by respiratory products of blood oxidation. It also naturally represents, at the same time, the first fraction of air that will be expired. At the end of expiration, the then dead space air has come from the alveolar areas and is accordingly laden with carbon dioxide.

EXPLANATION OF PRESSURE TERMINOLOGY

Intrapulmonic Pressure (Intrapulmonary Pressure) relates to the conditions of pressure existing within the lung structure itself (the distensible and collapsible structure enclosed within the pulmonary pleura). When the lungs are at rest, at the end of an inspiration or at the end of an expiration, intrapulmonic (intrapulmonary) pressure equals that of the outside atmosphere with which it is in free communication through the open respiratory tract. It is therefore at that resting phase, neither positive nor negative.

During the act of inspiration, intrapulmonic (intrapulmonary) pressure becomes "negative," or less than that of the outside atmosphere. This is brought about by the already described active enlargement of the thorax, whose outward pull expands the lungs faster than their air can be drawn in without frictional resistance from the mechanical constrictions that are interposed by the glottis (which is normally the narrowest part) and other portions of the respiratory tract. The extent of this intrapulmonic negative pressure during inspiration, depends upon (a) the rapidity and amplitude of the muscular inspiratory enlargement and (b) the size and degree of resistant constrictions that may exist between the lungs and the outside atmosphere. During quiet, normal inspiration, intrapulmonic negative pressure averagely registers approximately minus 2 millimeters of mercury (-2 mm. Hg.).

During the act of expiration, intrapulmonic (intrapulmonary) pressure becomes "positive" or greater than that of the outside atmosphere. This is due to the fact that the speed of contraction in size of the thorax is such that it permits the contractile lungs to reduce their volume faster than their air can be expelled through the conductive respiratory tract without frictional resistance from the glottis and other portions of the tract through which it must pass in exhalation. Hence, pulmonic air is "compressed" somewhat and positive pressure is thereby created within its area. During quiet, normal expiration, intrapulmonic positive pressure averagely registers approximately plus 3 or plus 4 millimeters of mercury (+3 or +4 mm.)

Intrapleural Pressure (Intrathoracic Pressure) relates to the conditions of pressure existing within the thorax, but outside of the lungs. It embraces the pleural cavity and the mediastinum (the mediastinal spaces). This intrapleural or intrathoracic pressure denotes the condition of pressure under which the heart, the great vessels, the thoracic duct and other structures

within the mediastinum function. Normally, intrathoracic pressure is negative and therefore the vital mediastinal structures carry on their work at a pressure that is lower than that of the outside atmosphere. This intrathoracic negative pressure facilitates the drawing of blood up into the large venous trunks and into the auricles of the heart, due largely to a "sucking" effect. It also plays an important rôle in maintenance of normal lymph flow through the thoracic duct which empties into the venous stream to the Conversely, positive pressure introduced to the intrathoracic area inhibits these actions.

The intrapleural (intrathoracic) negative pressure under which the lungs, heart, great vessels and other thoracic organs normally carry on their work, is caused by the counterplay of two opposed forces, (1) the already described inspiratory pull by the diaphragm and thoracic cage as they expand the cavity downward, upward and outward acting against (2) the tonic, contractile counter pull inward of the elastic lung structure, which continuously acts to contract the pleural lung covering away from the thoracic walls and from the diaphragm. While the degree of the resultant negative pressure within the intrapleural cavity varies markedly with different individuals, and even in the same individual at different times, it is stated (by Aaron and others) to average in adults "minus 4.5 to minus 9 millimeters of mercury during quiet inspiration" and "minus 3 to minus 6 millimeters of mercury during quiet expiration." The chest service at Barnes Hospital has noted during inspiration "minus 2 to minus 18 millimeters of mercury, according to the phase at which the reading were taken" and has noted during expiration "from almost zero to minus 8 millimeters of mercury, according to the phase at which it was taken."

It is to be noted that intrapleural (intrathoracic) pressure does not equal atmospheric pressure, but instead continues to be "negative," even during expiration. This is due to the fact that during expiration the constant contractile tension of the elastic lung structure continually acts to pull its closed covering (pleura) away from the thoracic walls, in an effort to deflate itself to an "unstretched" state. This contractive effort the lung structure continues even at the end of expiration, when each lung is still "expanded" to the extent of the supplemental air and of the residual air which it contains at the end of the expiratory phase.

While intrapleural pressure does not reach atmospheric pressure during expiration, both intrapulmonic pressure and intratracheal pressure do reach, and exceed, atmospheric pressure during the expiratory phase, due to the fact that both of these latter areas (intrapulmonic and intratracheal) lie between the actuating compressor force of the contracting lung covering (pulmonary pleura) and the frictionally resistant narrowed opening of the glottis.

THE MEDIASTINUM.

As has been noted (page 171), the space between the lungs is occupied by a group of structures which includes the trachea, esophagus, heart, great arteries, great veins, thoracic duct, et cetera. This median space, within which these structures lie, is called the *mediastinum*. The structures within its boundaries are called the mediastinal contents (Fig. 5). While for convenience in description, the mediastinum is divided anatomically into several areas, we will for our purpose here consider it in its entirety, as

a single structure composed of the mediastinal contents "walled in" by, and lying between, the right and left mediastinal pleurae.

Normal Mobile Mediastinum: Normally the mediastinum is somewhat mobile, moving slightly forward and backward with inspiration and expiration. When positive pressure is presented to one side of it, as in the creation of an artificial pneumothorax in that side of the chest, the mobile mediastinum shifts (is forced) over toward the other side of the thorax, thereby encroaching upon the unoperated lung and consequently decreasing its respiratory capacity. The practical significance of this physical phenomenon, to the anesthetist, lies in its indication for administering the anesthesia under sufficient positive pressure to counterbalance the contralateral pressure that has been introduced by the pneumothorax, and to thereby prevent encroachment of the mobile mediastinum upon the unoperated lung at a time when its fullest respiratory integrity is vitally needed.

Fixed Mediastinum. Under certain circumstances, such as pleural adhesions, induration in empyema, et cetera, the normally mobile mediastinal tissues become somewhat stabilized, and a condition termed "fixed mediastinum" exists, in which the anchored or stiffened mediastinal structure resists the positive pressure of pneumothorax and thereby prevents the increased (atmospheric) pressure of the pneumothorax from forcing the mediastinum over into the unaffected lung.

Whether a patient's mediastinum is "mobile" or "fixed," and therefore whether the anesthesia during pneumothorax is to be conducted under increased positive pressure or at merely atmospheric pressure, is determined by the surgeon's findings at the operative field. It is important that the anes-

the tist understand the significance of the physiological functions and mechanics involved.

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ACTIVITIES OF STATE ORGANIZATIONS

ALABAMA

The annual meeting of the Alabama Association of Nurse Anesthetists was held March 23, 1940, at the Tutwiler Hotel in Birmingham, the President, Miss Mary Blande Parks, presiding.

The following officers were elected:

President

Frances Bishop St. Vincent's Hospital, Birmingham

First Vice-President

Delle Iva Philen 1029 Eighteenth St., Birmingham

Second Vice-President

Edith Holmquist Jefferson T. B. Sanitarium, Birmingham

Secretary

Hattie M. Barnes South Highlands Infirmary, Birmingham

Treasurer

Stephanie Foto 2712 Clairmont Ave., Birmingham



FRANCES BISHOP President

GEORGIA

The second annual meeting of the Georgia Association of Nurse Anesthetists was held at the Georgia Baptist Hospital, Atlanta, Georgia, on May 31st, 1940.

Report of Secretary

Members in good standing		39
Delinquent members	2	
Members transferred to Georgia	5	
Members transferred from Georgia	3	

Report of Treasurer

Receipts:		
Dues\$	249.00	
Initiation fees	6.00	255.00

Cash on hand April 1, 1939..... \$ 35.62

Total	 \$290.62
	 4

Disbursements:

Dues to American Association\$	169.75
Initiation fees to American Association	6.00
To Southeastern Assembly of Nurse Anes-	
thetists	68.60
Office expense	13.62

Total\$257.97

Cash on hand March 31, 1940...... \$ 32.65

Officers elected:

President

Halo H. Warman Emory University Hospital, Emory University

Vice-President

Jean Greear McGinty Elbert Co. Hospital, Elberton

Secretary-Treasurer

Alpha Schier St. Joseph's Infirmary, Atlanta

Trustees:

Rubye Ridley Rosalie C. McDonald Leola Vickers

Membership Committee Beata B. Clark A. Dorothea Sheppard

Mabel G. Stott



HALO H. WARMAN President

CALIFORNIA

A meeting of the California Association of Nurse Anesthetists was held on May 21st, 1940, at the Franklin Hospital, San Francisco, with an attendance of thirty.

Dr. Ralph Scovel gave an interesting talk on "The World Today, and in What Way Does It Affect Us?"

Miss Martha Bichel, President of the Association, was elected unanimously as Trustee for the Anesthesia Section on the Board of the Association of Western Hospitals. The Program Committee reported great success in selling tickets on \$5.00 admission books to the San Francisco Fair, and it is anticipated that a substantial sum will be realized.

Refreshments were served at the conclusion of the meeting.

Officers elected:

President

Martha Bichel Franklin Hospital, San Francisco First Vice-President Gladys M. Bolton

972 Bush St., San Francisco

Second Vice-President Katherine H. Graham

San Francisco Hospital, San Francisco

Secretary-Treasurer Marian L. Lagan

5 Prado St., San Francisco

Trustee Mabel Cauthorn

318 Elm St., San Mateo

ILLINOIS

The first annual joint meeting of the anesthetists of Illinois, Indiana and Michigan was held at the Stevens Hotel, Chicago, Illinois, on May 1st and 2nd, 1940, in conjunction with the Tri-State Hospital Assembly. The complete program was published in the May, 1940, issue of the Bulletin.

At the joint luncheon for the anesthetists the attendance was eighty-three, and at the afternoon general session one hundred and seventy-five were present. A large number of the anesthetists attended the banquet given by the Tri-State Hospital Assembly, at which Mr. James Hamilton, President of the American College of Hospital Administrators, was the guest speaker.

The meeting aroused much enthusiasm and it was voted unanimously to meet with the Tri-State Hospital Assembly in 1941. Mrs. Mae B. Cameron, Ravenswood Hospital, Chicago, Ill., was elected Chairman for the coming year.

Illinois Association Officers elected:

President

Nelle G. Vincent Evanston Hospital, Evanston

First Vice-President

Edith H. Holmes 1044 N. Francisco Ave., Chicago

Second Vice-President

Ann Priester

West Suburban Hosp., Oak Park

Secretary

Gladys Hoffman

6001 S. Green St., Chicago

Treasurer

Exire O'Day

Ravenswood Hospital, Chicago

Historian

Marjorie Baker

St. Joseph's Hospital, Chicago



NELLE G. VINCENT President

Standing Committees:

Educational Sister M. Borromea, Chairman

Mae B. Cameron

Membership Jean Roth, Chairman

Bernadine M. Zenz Marjorie Baker

Program Esther L. McDermott, Chairman

Lottie M. Baumgartner

Jean Shaw

Finance Ann Priester, Chairman

Exire O'Day Mary Brooks

Revision Sister Rudolpha, Chairman

Anna Willenborg Martha Pippereit

Nominating Edith H. Holmes, Chairman

Myrna Willenborg Helga Hellickson

Legislative Hattie M. Lewis, Chairman

Valeda Hunt Alice Martin

IOWA

Following a call to meet in conjunction with the Iowa Hospital Association in Des Moines, the Iowa Association of Nurse Anesthetists was organized on April 23, 1940, and the following officers were elected:

President

Sister Mary Pauline, R.S.M. Mercy Hospital, Des Moines

Vice-President

Mary A. Culp

Mercy Hospital, Des Moines

Secretary

Sylvia C. Abraham

Mercy Hospital, Council Bluffs

Treasurer

Myrtle E. Sven

Lutheran Hospital, Fort Dodge

Historian

Alma M. Brandt

Deaconess Hosp., Marshalltown

Trustees

H. Kiefer

Mary G. Puth

Sister M. Francella Dunton



SISTER MARY PAULINE President

MINNESOTA

The second series of two lectures on anesthesia given by the Minnesota Association in April drew an attendance of one hundred and seventy-five anesthetists and doctors.

The sixth annual convention of the Minnesota Association of Nurse Anesthetists was held at the Nicollet Hotel, Minneapolis, on May 24, 1940, in conjunction with the Minnesota Hospital Association. The program, published in full in the May issue of the Bulletin, was enjoyed by an attendance of approximately one hundred.

The revised constitution and by-laws were submitted and approved.

Officers elected:

President Charlotte Grams

Gillette Hospital, St. Paul

Vice-President Esther Rodenberg

Gillette Hospital, St. Paul

Secretary Marvel Shurr

Midway Hospital, St. Paul

Treasurer J. Marie Gronvold

St. Joseph's Hospital, St. Paul

Trustees Hazel Peterson
Marie Petrowske

MISSISSIPPI

The Mississippi Association of Nurse Anesthetists held its annual meeting on May 13, 1940, at the Robert E. Lee Hospital, Jackson, Miss.

Mrs. Elizabeth Wates was appointed as a delegate to the annual meeting of the American Association of Nurse Anesthetists to be held in Boston in

September. A membership and publicity drive is being planned for the year 1940.

Officers elected:

President

Elizabeth N. Wates 3950 Council Circle, Jackson, Mississippi

First Vice-President
Ruth Perry Glass
Methodist Hospital, Hattiesburg

Second Vice-President
Hettye Ellsey
11th St. and 21st Ave., Meridian

Secretary-Treasurer
Susie May Collins
c/o Drs. Trudeau and O'Mara,
Biloxi



ELIZABETH N. WATES
President

FLORIDA

The Florida Association of Nurse Anesthetists will hold its annual meeting in Miami on November 2, 1940. For further particulars write Miss Marjorie L. Watts, President, Box 750, Plant City, Fla.

NEW JERSEY

The first annual meeting and dinner of the New Jersey Association of Nurse Anesthetists was held at the Douglas Hotel, Newark, N. J., on May 8, 1940, and a full and interesting program was enjoyed by the twenty-five members and guests in attendance.

Following the invocation by the Rev. J. G. Martin, Superintendent of St. Barnabas Hospital, Newark, and an address of welcome by Miss Della Logan, President of the New Jersey Association, Miss Martha Glenn, Historian, gave a report covering the activities of the group.

Mrs. Agnes Strandberg, of Carteret, N. J., read a paper entitled "Cyclopropane: A Case Report"; Miss Laura Bryant, of Cooper Hospital, Camden, discussed "Modern Anesthesia"; and the Rev. J. G. Martin gave an address on the subject "The Status of the Nurse Anesthetists."

Miss Mary A. Patterson, Cooper Hospital, Camden, was elected Secretary-Treasurer, following the resignation of Miss Nancy M. Bowles; and Miss Ruth E. Strom was elected to the Board of Trustees.



DELLA LCGAN President

OREGON

At the May meeting of the Oregon Association Mrs. Margaret H. Love, Treasurer, was chosen as a delegate to the annual meeting in Boston in September. Printed copies of the Oregon revised constitution and by-laws were distributed to the members.

The monthly meetings of this active group have been discontinued for the summer but will be resumed in October.

NEW YORK

The seventh annual meeting of the New York Association of Nurse Anesthetists was held at the Hotel New Yorker, New York City, May 22 to 24, 1940. The program was published in the February, 1940, issue of the Bulletin.

It was voted unanimously to confer honorary membership in the New York Association upon Miss Hazel Blanchard, retiring President. The assembly voted to contribute the sum of \$100.00 toward the expenses of the Educational Survey.

The drawing for the diamond wrist watch took place at the meeting and it was won by Miss Anna E. Armstrong.

Officers elected:

President

Mrs. Frances Hess Long Island College Hospital, Brooklyn

Vice-President

Donna D. Dougherty Chas. S. Wilson Memorial Hospital, Johnson City

Secretary

Alice M. Racette Ellis Hospital, Schenectady

Treasurer

May A. Danaher 1845 Becker Street, Schenectady

Historian

Pauline Lapinski Long Island College Hospital Brooklyn



FRANCES HESS President

PENNSYLVANIA

The ninth annual meeting of the Pennsylvania Association of Nurse Anesthetists was held May 8-10, 1940, in Pittsburgh, Pa., in conjunction with the Hospital Association of Pennsylvania. Complete program was published in the May issue of the Bulletin.

Report of Secretary

Members in good standing April 1, 1939	204	
Members in good standing April 1, 1940	220	
Delinquent members:		
April 1, 1939	55	
April 1, 1940	56	
Resignations	3	
Deaths	1	
Members transferred to Pennsylvania Association	21	
Members transferred from Pennsylvania Association	18	
New members	28	
Total Membership April 1, 1940		
(including delinquent members)		276
Correspondence—pieces mailed		1110
—pieces received		556
Bills mailed out December 1, 1939		268
Bills mailed April 1, 1940, to delinquent members		52

Report of Treasurer			
Cash in Bank April 1,	1939		.\$1142.48
Receipts			
Initiation fees Dues from A	merican Association for mem-	63.00	
	erred to Pennsylvania Associa-		
	disbanded District No. 3		
	ng checks cancelled		\$1662.66
			\$2805.14
Disbursements			,
Remittances t	o American Association of		
Nurse Anesth	etists:		
		\$1059.75	
	es	60.00	
Pins		3.00	
		\$1122.75	
Initiation fees	refunded	3.00	
		6.00	
Dues overpaid	—refunded to members	2.00	
Office expenses	S	64.05	
Convention expenses .		201.31	\$1399.11
Represented by	rch 31, 1940y: y: posit at the Central-Penn Nati	anal Pauls	\$1406.03 \$1406.03
	posit at the Central-Fenn Nath	onai bank	\$1400.05
Officers:			
President 1939-41	Edith E. Abary Harrisburg Hospital, Harrish	ourg	
First Vice-President 1940-42	Grace Williams Allegheny General Hospital,	Pittsburgh	
Second Vice-President 1939-41	Edith Davis Allentown Hospital, Allentow	n	
Secretary-Treasurer 1940-42	Helen Young Walker 1824 Wallace Street, Philadel	phia	
Trustees 1939-41	Mary E. Miller Esther Kissell Madeleine M. King		

Edwina M. Irons Elizabeth M. Davis Leola M. Richter

1940-42



Educational Booth-Pennsylvania Annual Meeting

VIRGINIA

The sixth annual meeting of the Virginia Association of Nurse Anesthetists was held at the John Marshall Hotel, Richmond, on April 27, 1940. At the business meeting, called to order by Mrs. Eloise Ward, President, the reports of the Secretary-Treasurer, and of the Revisions Committee by Mrs. Minnie Freese Payne, Chairman, were read and approved.

A paper on "Spinal Anesthesia" was read by Miss Leah L. Rosenbaum, Hospital of St. Vincent de Paul, Norfolk, and a lecture on "Medical Aspects of Anesthesia" was given by Dr. LeRoy Kellum of Richmond. Miss Vera G. Copeland of St. Elizabeth's Hospital, Richmond, led the discussion.

The members were entertained at a tea given by Mrs. Raymond C. Hooker at her home on Riverside Drive, and the annual banquet was held at the John Marshall Hotel at 8:00 P.M.

WASHINGTON

The Washington anesthetists held their first annual meeting in the Davenport Hotel, Spokane, on May 17th and 18th, 1940, in conjunction with the Washington Hospital Association.

An address of welcome was given by Mr. Frank Sutherlin, Mayor of Spokane; Miss Agnes E. Kilbride, President of the Eastern Division of the Washington Association of Nurse Anesthetists, welcomed the visiting anesthetists and Miss Elsa Koski, President of the Western Division, responded.

The following papers were read:

"Sodium Pentothal"

Martha M. Schwartz, Tacoma General Hospital, Tacoma, Wash.

"Physiology of Anesthesia and Anesthetic Convulsions" Joseph W. Lynch, M.D., Spokane, Wash.

"The Status of the Nurse Anesthetists in Spinal Anesthesia" Donald G. Corbett, M.D., Spokane, Wash.

"Cyclopropane Anesthesia"

Helen M. Zeimantz, Sacred Heart Hospital, Spokane, Wash.

"The Value of a Well-Organized Department of Anesthesia to the Hospital from the Standpoint of the Employer"

Fannie Forth, R.N., Assistant Superintendent, Deaconess Hospital, Spokane, Wash.

"The Value of a Well-Organized Department of Anesthesia to the Hospital from the Standpoint of the Employee"

Elsa A. Koski, Tacoma General Hospital, Tacoma, Wash.

"Anesthetic Problems in Small Hospitals"

Nan Rowlands, 607 Medical Dental Bldg., Seattle, Wash.

Interesting discussions followed the papers. Thirty-four members were registered. The total of ninety-three paid-up members, within a year after the group was organized, is evidence that a fine piece of work has been done. It is hoped that by 1941 the membership will total at least one hundred.

The entertainment for the visiting anesthetists included a luncheon, at which Mrs. Harry Davenport of Spokane reviewed the book "This Side of Glory." At the banquet the Spokane School Nurse, Miss Nell Kay, presented a style show, six student nurses serving as models.

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Dinner-Long Island College Hospital Alumnae Association

LONG ISLAND COLLEGE HOSPITAL SCHOOL OF ANESTHESIA

The Long Island College Hospital School of Anesthesia Alumnae Association celebrated the twenty-fifth anniversary of the founding of the school with a dinner dance at the Hotel Granada, Brooklyn, N. Y., on February 6, 1940.

Miss Gertrude Steffen, Chairman, was assisted by Mrs. Helen Silverman, Miss Pauline Lapinsky and Mrs. Beulah Wagner. The guests of honor were Mrs. Ruth Nash, of Muhlenberg Hospital, Plainfield, N. J.; Dr. James Gwathmey of New York; Dr. L. L. Lapointe of Brooklyn; and Mrs. Frances Hess, Director, Long Island College Hospital School of Anesthesia.

ANNUAL JOINT LUNCHEON—ALUMNAE ASSOCIATIONS

As in former years, the Alumnae Associations of the Schools of Anesthesia of the following hospitals: University Hospitals (Lakeside), Cleveland; Long Island College Hospital, Brooklyn; Jewish Hospital, Philadelphia, and Grace Hospital, Detroit, will hold a joint luncheon during the annual meeting of the American Association of Nurse Anesthetists, on Tuesday, September 17th, 1940, at 12:00 o'clock P.M., at the Hotel Touraine, Boston, Mass.

Dr. Elliott C. Cutler, who was Professor of Surgery at the University Hospitals of Cleveland for several years, and who left to take the position of Moseley Professor of Surgery at Peter Bent Brigham Hospital in Boston left vacant by Dr. Harvey Cushing, will be the guest speaker.

Members of the American Association of Nurse Anesthetists are invited to attend. Tickets will be available at the registration desk.

In Memoriam

Miss Petrine Hoseth, formerly of St. Barnabas Hospital, Minneapolis, Minn., passed away on July 5, 1940. Miss Hoseth had been a member of the Minnesota and American Associations of Nurse Anesthetists since 1935.

CONTEST FOR STUDENT ANESTHETISTS



MARY W. LILLIG

At the eighth annual meeting of the Pennsylvania Association of Nurse Anesthetists, held in April, 1939, Hilda R. Salomon, Jewish Hospital, Philadelphia, offered a prize of \$10.00 for the best paper on anesthesia written by a student anesthetist. The Pennsylvania Association also contributed \$5.00 for a second prize. The papers submitted were judged by the Educational Committee of the American Association of Nurse Anesthetists.

Seventeen papers were entered in the contest—eleven by students of the Jewish Hospital, Philadelphia, and six from Mercy Hospital, Pittsburgh. The results were announced at the ninth annual meeting of the Pennsylvania Association held in Pittsburgh May 8-10, 1940, as follows:

First Prize

Miss Mary W. Lillig, Jewish Hospital, Philadelphia "The Importance of Carbon Dioxide in Relation to Anesthesia"

Second Prize

Miss Edith A. Aynes, Jewish Hospital, Philadelphia "Sulphanilimide in Relation to Anesthesia"

Honorable Mention

Miss Beulah Duxbury, Jewish Hospital Doris A. Kehoe, Jewish Hospital Priscilla Maietta, Jewish Hospital Doris McNerty, Jewish Hospital Ida Nystrom, Mercy Hospital S. J. Pitcher, Jewish Hospital Jeanne Rockerfeller, Mercy Hospital Ruth C. Wagaman, Mercy Hospital

The Board of Trustees of the Pennsylvania Association voted to continue the contest, which will be open to any student anesthetist in Pennsylvania. Miss Edith Abary, President of the Pennsylvania Association, donated the first prize of \$10.00, and the Association again contributed the second prize of \$5.00.

Members American Association of Nurse Anesthetists

August 1, 1940

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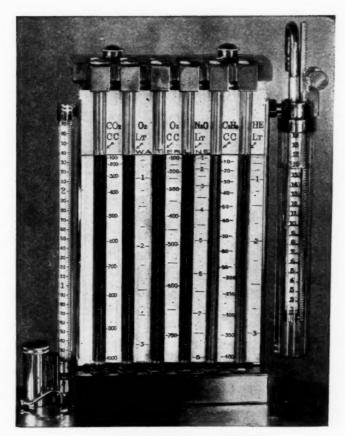
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